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ABSTRACT

This document contains written summaries of workshop activities which took place at the 1984 summer workshop sponsored by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools. The theme of the workshop was "The Human Dimension of Teacher Education for the 21st Century." Following a description of the background, structure, and objectives of the Association, and a description of workshop procedures, theme group reports were presented, entitled: (1) "On Being Human: the Third Dimension in Teacher Education"; (2) "The Human Dimension of Teacher Education for the 21st Century"; (3) "Affective and Effective Teaching: The Human Dimension of Teacher Education for the 21st Century"; (4) "If the Human Dimension is the Base of the Pyramid for Teacher Education--Where is the Research Support?"; and (5) "Humanistic Teacher Education: What Ought to Be?" The final section of the report is devoted to individual reports on experiences in using the humanistic approach to educating, including such topics as: (1) integrating effective teaching behaviors in the teacher education curriculum; teaching in Third World countries; early childhood education and the formation of a link between the human dimension and competency based teacher training; melding affective and instructional goals; computers; student motivation to read; teacher burnout; aesthetics in teaching; the computer language, LOGO; and a scenario: Education 2084. (JD)

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The Human Dimension

of Teacher Education

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NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION
TEACHERS EDUCATION WORKSHOP
BALL STATE UNIVERSITY
1984

FOREWORD

For thirty-seven years the TEACHER EDUCATION WORKSHOP, which has been sponsored by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools, has provided a means through which interested institutions of higher education can work cooperatively. This joint effort has always been upon teacher education and higher education. The theme for each workshop is identified by the Teacher Education Project Committee of the North Central Accrediting Association. As has been true in each of the previous thirty-seven workshops, opportunity was provided for each individual participant to represent the home institution as a contributor to the collective efforts of the total workshop. Efforts were also made to direct the interests and concerns of each workshopper toward the general theme of the workshop, THE HUMAN DIMENSION OF TEACHER EDUCATION FOR THE 21ST CENTURY.

The general outline of the 1984-1985 project year began with the residential summer workshop described in this report. The theme was studied; written summaries of all of the workshop activities are contained in this document. This written report can, at best, provide only a partial summarization of the overall cognitive outcomes resulting from the workshop. Of equal importance and significance, moreover, was a broad array of affective encounters which every participant experienced. Ball State University was asked to host the 1984 workshop. The special opportunities available and the past experience of hosting numerous NCA Workshops at Ball State University contributed much.

Interpersonal relationships among the workshoppers and staff members made valuable contributions toward a greater understanding of the dynamics of teacher education. The housing arrangements and social activities for workshop participants presented additional opportunities for learning.

Total success of the workshop must be attributed to the efforts of each individual workshopper. For the final production of this report, I am personally indebted to Linda Ritchie, Jean Redburn, Karen Willey, and other support personnel from the Department of Secondary, Higher and Foundations of Education at Ball State University, who have contributed their special skills and energies in bringing this publication to fruition.

To the faculty, staff, and administration at Ball State University, indebtedness for the complete support and willing assistance, which were provided throughout the entire workshop, is acknowledged.

Donald W. Jones

Donald W. Jones, Chairman
North Central Association
Teacher Education Project

DR. JOHN WORTHEN
President,
Ball State University

THIRTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION TEACHER EDUCATION SUMMER WORKSHOP

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CHAPTER I

THE TOTAL PROGRAM OF

THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROJECT

Background

For thirty-seven years (1947-1984) the North Central Accrediting Association has sponsored the activities of its Committee on Institutions for Teacher Education and the Teacher Education Project. Throughout the thirty-seven year history of the sponsorship, many different activities were implemented. For the past seven years the structure and direction have been provided through the Teacher Education Project which also enjoys the sponsorship of the North Central Association. During the most recent years, 1979-1980, 1980-1981, 1981-1982, 1982-1983, and 1983-1984, the major activity of the project, the summer workshop, has also been sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

The most outstanding and well-known contribution of the former Committee was the support and sponsorhsip of a Teacher Education Workshop. As a result of internal changes in the makeup of the North Central Association itself, it became necessary to alter the support structure of the "project". The objectives and operation, however, have remained essentially unchanged. In order to gain the full impact and benefits of the workshop over a thirty-six year period to institutions of higher education accredited by the North Central Association, it would be necessary for one to study at considerable length each of the products of the total project, (1) the workshop, (2) the Presidents' and Deans' Annual Meeting, and (3) other similar activities sponsored throughout the long history of the Association. Some institutions have chosen to participate in the teacher education activities for the full thirty-seven year period.

The initial chapter of this publication contains the following basic elements:

1. a review statement describing the past activities and
2. a description of the Teacher Education Project as it presently operates.

Rationale

The activities of the Teacher Education Project have served a significant service for the North Central Accrediting Association. In the past, project activities included research elements, but the major direction of the Teacher Education Project has been to provide desired services to institutions throughout the North Central Region who have chosen to avail themselves of opportunities for self improvement. Repeatedly, reinforcement and encouragement have been provided by faculty and administration representatives from the institutions served by the project. Each year an activity is identified which focuses upon an area of common concern. A nucleus of institutions (all accredited by the North Central Association) have felt a direct need for participation in this activity throughout its entire thirty-six year history.

Purposes and Objectives

The overall goal of the Teacher Education Project is to strengthen the educational programs of North Central Association and AACTE institutions of higher education through the continuation of the activities of the project. The Teacher Education Project Committee achieves this goal by supporting the following objectives.

Objectives of the NCA Teacher Education Project:

1. to provide initiative and leadership through the Teacher Education Project which will permit interested institutions to work jointly and cooperatively in studying programs in teacher education as well as general problems of higher education;

2. to invite broad institutional participation from throughout the NCA Region;

3. to provide direction to the Teacher Education Project and to maintain a constant evaluation of the project;

4. to establish and maintain appropriate working relationships with regard to project activities such as:

   a. summer "Teacher Education Workshop";

   b. bi-annual "Coordinator Visits" to participating institutions;

   c. publication and distribution of the results of project activities;

d. development of program activities for the annual NCA Meeting and for other national and regional meetings.

Procedures Identified

1. The project committee is maintained by filling vacancies from participating institutions. The Teacher Education Project Committee is comprised of from five to nine members. The normal term is five (5) years.

2. The Teacher Education Project Committee selects a chairperson and determines the total activities which will be included in the Teacher Education Project. The chairperson of the Teacher Education Project Committee serves as the Director of the Project.

3. The Teacher Education Project Committee serves as the Board of Directors.

4. Each year the Teacher Education Project Committee evaluates the project activities and makes appropriate recommendations.

Personnel

There have been no full-time personnel associated with the project at any time in its entire thirty-seven year history. All activities of the Teacher Education Project Committee and the project have been voluntary. Many of the expenses of the summer workshop, including the personnel associated with this activity, were largely assumed by the Participating Host Institution. Project Coordinators are chosen from the list of past workshoppers; they are not paid for their services except for expenses and a modest honorarium.

Target Group

The primary targets of the goals of the Teacher Education Project have been institutions of higher education. The direct services to the institutions which elect to participate are obvious. In addition to the direct target services, publications supported by the Committee are available to all NCA institutions.

The workshop goals serve both faculty and administrators from participating institutions. Of course, the entire teaching profession is also served by the annual focus upon a critical problem relating to teacher education. Through the continued use of coordinator visits (as well as the alternatives presented in the Project Description), all participating institutions gain additional benefits.

Product or Activities

A full explanation of the "Cooperative Teacher Education Project" follows in this chapter. While minor changes are constantly initiated by the Committee, the essential thrust will continue throughout the 1984-1985 project year. Notice of the specific "themes" will be communicated to NCA institutions. Several structural changes are planned for the 1985-1986 project year.

General Purpose of the Teacher Education Project

The general purpose of the Teacher Education Project is the *improvement of teacher education.* Such improvement is heavily dependent upon the study of educational problems in each individual institution. The in-service growth of faculty members which is designed to qualify them for leadership assignments is another goal. It is through success in solving current problems and through the sharing of these successes that the improvement of educational programs in the participating colleges will be brought about.

Probably the greatest benefit of the project results from inter-institutional cooperation. Similar joint efforts have demonstrated that when colleges set out to help each other, they greatly help themselves. Cooperation leads to creative effort.

Sponsorship and Direction

Members of the Teacher Education Project Committee are selected from participating institutions. Present members of the committee are:

James Chapman, President* West Liberty State College West Liberty, West Virginia	1977-78 through*1983-84
Donald Deselms, Vice President Chadron State College Chadron, Nebraska	1982-83 through 1987-88
F. Clark Elkins President's Coordinator of University Relations Northern Arizona University Flagstaff, Arizona	1981-82 through 1986-87
Wayne Huddleston, Vice President for Academic Affairs The School of the Ozarks Point Lookout, Missouri	1981-82 through 1986-87
Janet Murphy, President Missouri Western College Saint Joseph, Missouri	1984-85 through 1989-90

Mossie Richmond
Vice President University
Relations
Arkansas State University
Jonesboro, Arkansas 1981-82 through 1986-87

Donald W. Jones, Director
Secondary Teacher Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana 1969-70 through 1983-84

The North Central Association Teacher Education Project Committee is responsible for finances of the project, for determining major policy, and for general supervision and direction of the project.

The Project Committee is assisted by a number of staff members known as Project Coordinators, who normally serve for a three-year term. Individuals presently serving in this capacity during the 1983-1984 project year are:

Donald Jones, Director
Secondary Teacher Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

Darlene Miller, Dean
School of Social and Professional Studies
Anderson College
Anderson, Indiana

John Strouse, Chairman
Department of Secondary, Higher
and Foundations of Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

Project Coordinators conduct visits to colleges, and stimulate and facilitate inter-institutional collaboration. Both committee members and coordinators devote part time only to the work. There are no regularly paid personnel connected with the entire project.

Project Activities

Summer Workshop

The annual summer workshop is regarded as a valuable means of helping staff members prepare for leadership in directing institutional development and improvement, in initiating such programs, and, in general, in facilitating cooperative thinking and sharing with reference to the improvement of teacher education. *Consequently, participating colleges are expected to send a representative to the workshop each summer.*

Each workshop is devoted to intensive consideration of the problems which concern the individual colleges. Workshops also provide a period for training the leadership personnel needed for continued study of problems by individual colleges during the year. Each year a report containing proceedings of the summer workshop is distributed to the participating colleges and it is available nationally for purchase at cost.

The published workshop report provides considerable insight into the processes and outcomes of the workshop, but at the same time, what is perhaps the most significant outcome of the activity is not recorded at all within the pages of this record. This outcome consists of the change that is effected within the workshoppers themselves as a result of the three weeks of intensive struggle with the particular problems of their own institutions. They consult with experts and examine the professional literature on these problems and they exchange information and experiences with the representatives from other institutions at the workshop concerning common problems. Realizing the fundamental importance of systematic study of institutional problems and broadening or putting to the test their appreciation of colleagues in disciplines other than their own are also emphasized. Many facets of institutional operation and the tasks and challenges of higher education as a whole rather than simply one's own institution become apparent. Indeed, one fundamental purpose in operating the workshop is to produce these personal gains.

Over a period of several years some colleges have accumulated a group of faculty and administrators, who, having had the workshop experience, constitute a powerful nucleus for providing leadership and direction not only in institutional research, but also in other phases of operation. Such a nucleus in the faculty can mean the difference between a dynamic academic atmosphere and a dead one, between active efforts to face real needs for change and a satisfaction with the status quo, between a closely knit staff that operates harmoniously and one that has noticeably divided itself between faculty devotion beyond the call of duty and the performance only of necessary tasks. For these reasons some colleges have sent two representatives to the workshop.

Coordinator Services

The project maintains a staff of Project Coordinators, who often assist the workshop staff. Thus, they may help to provide leadership for the workshop and become acquainted with the representatives and the problems which they are studying. One of the coordinators may serve as Co-Director of the Workshop for the three-week period.

A Project Coordinator also visits each college for at least one day every other year.* The chief function of these visits is first to stimulate institutional development, and second, to facilitate the testing of the soundness of plans by the experiences

of other colleges. Also, in order to provide for the sharing of experiences among the participating colleges, each coordinator attempts, during this visit to the campus, not only to impart pertinent information which he/she already has about problems and practices in other colleges, but also to acquire additional knowledge which he/she may share with other institutions in subsequent visits. The visit by the coordinator or the use of one of the following alternatives is also a condition of participation in the project. Beginning with the 1985-1986 project year, the coordinator visits will be discontinued as a required element. Rather, Project Coordinator Visits will be made available on a "cost" basis.

Alternatives to Coordinator Visits

Instead of having a visit every year by one of the regular coordinators, each college participating in the Teacher Education Project may elect one of the following four alternatives. These alternatives are open for use during any academic year upon application before October 30th by any institution which actively participated in the Committee's Project during the year immediately preceding. The deadline date is necessary in order that the use of the alternatives may be taken into account in planning for coordinator visits. Visits are normally planned to include two or three colleges in one trip so as to conserve the coordinator's time and the project funds.

1. The first alternative is that of the *Regional Work Conference*. Such an event may be planned by the participating colleges in one or two states, with or without attendance at the conference by institutions not in the project. (At least two participating colleges must cooperatively select this plan.) In general, the purpose of the conference would be to have a relatively small number of colleges work intensively over a period of perhaps two days on some rather clearly defined educational problem. Each institution eligible to use this alternative will be reimbursed for actual expenses in connection with the conference up to the amount of $200.00 (representing the coordinator's honorarium and a portion of the coordinator's travel expenses for any one college.) A portion of this sum could also be used for printing, etc. Under this alternative the committee will send one of its regular coordinators to the work conference, and will defray the honorarium and travel expenses involved. The primary reason for sending the coordinator to the conference is to have him/her meet with these campus leaders from participating institutions as a group and individually. The coordinator may also assume a nominal

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* Beginning with the 1984-1985 project year, coordinator visits will be made on a bi-annual basis. On years when the coordinator visit is not scheduled, an alternative will be used.

assignment in connection with the conference, but, if he/she is given a major role, proper compensation should be given by the colleges conducting the conference. In no event, however, should this responsibility interfere with the coordinator's primary purpose of giving adequate time to the chairmen of the work conference. Finally, the colleges undertaking the work conference will be expected to prepare a report summarizing the results of the conference for distribution to all institutions participating in the Teacher Education Project. The Project Committee will bear the cost of copying and distributing the report.

2. A second alternative to the coordinator's visit is the *Inter-Visitation Plan.* A small number of colleges in the same region may join in an arrangement whereby each takes a turn serving as host to a delegation of visitors from each of the others. Careful plans must be made by the host college so that the visit will have maximum value for the staff members from other institutions, who may spend part of their time in making observations, but who also will engage in intimate discussions with one another and with their hosts.

Each of the participating colleges taking part in such an inter-visitation plan will be reimbursed for expenses actually incurred, up to the amount of $200.00. The committee will also bear the cost of copying and distributing to the colleges participating in its project any report prepared on the results of the inter-visitations.

3. A third alternative to the coordinator's visit is the *Cooperative Research Study.* Two or more participating institutions may join in research on a common problem with, again, reimbursement made for expenses actually incurred up to the amount of $200.00 to each college involved. These colleges will be expected to prepare a report of their undertaking. When they have concluded the report the Project Committee will defray the cost of reproducing it and distributing it to all colleges participating in the Teacher Education Project.

4. The fourth and last alternative to the visit by a regular coordinator consists of a *Visit by a Specialist-Coordinator,* and involves only a single institution. A college participating in the Committee's Project may be working intensively on some problem on which it desires consultation with an expert. It may then request the Project Committee for permission to have a visit by a qualified person. Upon arrival of the proposal, arrangements may be made for a visit during the year by such a specialist-coordinator with reimbursement for the honorarium and travel being made by the Project Committee for expenses actually incurred up to the amount of $200.00.

In this last alternative, the specialist-coordinator will be expected to submit a brief report to the Project Committee in order that they may be kept informed on what is being done in connection with the project in the college or colleges with which he/she has been working.

Institutional Obligations

Each participating institution is obligated to send one representative to the summer workshop, but if it desires to do so, it may send two. Participation in the entire project will begin with representation in the workshop. A workshopper may be a teacher or an administrative officer, and he/she may be connected with any of the instructional departments. Also important are potential qualities of leadership, communication, and vital interest in teacher education and its relation to the total college program. It is important that the institutional representative to the workshop be chosen early so that he/she can make proper preparation for attending the workshop and so that the college can plan for the absence from the campus while in attendance.

Some participating colleges have established a Local North Central Association Project Committee which arranges for the coordinator's visit, provides for the distribution of materials, acts as a general discussion-forum group to keep the faculty informed and sympathetic about its teacher education undertaking, and keeps the project as a whole informed of the college's activities and progress through the coordinator.

Participation in the program for 1984-1985 required a contribution of $800.00 per year from each member college. This participation fee is used to finance expenses of the workshop, and *does include* registration expenses for one institutional representative to the *Teacher Education Workshop*. This amount does not cover the living expenses or transportation for those attending the summer workshop. It is expected that each college will establish local policies regarding such expenses. Staff costs for the workshops are assumed by the Cooperating Host University. The fee is payable on or before July 15, preceding the academic year to which it applies. Should an institution choose not to use the coordinator visit or alternative, the fee was $500.00 for 1984-1985. This fee structure applies to all participating institutions.

Publications

The publication of a report on significant developments of the workshop program is one basic goal of the project. Special emphasis is given to each of the various workshop activities together with specific illustrations of workshopper projects. These reports of the summer workshops are regular publications of the Teacher Education Project and are distributed to member institutions. Titles of the most recent publications are:

1970-71 Human Relations in Teacher Education

1971-72 Innovations in Human Relations in Teacher Education

1972-73 Performance-Based Teacher Education

1973-74 PBTE: Selective Retention

1974-75 Leadership in Teacher Education: The Dependent Variable for Change

1975-76 Continued Professional Development of Practicing Teachers: What Roles for Institutions of Higher Education?

1976-77 Evaluation in Teacher Education

1977-78 Accountability in Teacher Education

1978-79 Undergraduate Education: The Preparation of Teachers

1979-80 The Full Range of Professional Laboratory Experiences for Educational Personnel: Imperatives for the Future

Teacher Education Centers to Provide New Roles for Higher Education

1980-81 Multi-Cultural/Multi-Ethnic Education (Ball State)

1981-82 Multi-Cultural/Multi Ethnic Education (Northern Arizona University)

1982-83 Leadership and Governance in Teacher Education

1983-84 Revitalizing Teacher Education in the Mid 80's

1984-85 The Human Dimension of Teacher Education for the 21st Century

A Guide to the Coordinator's Visit

Introduction

Each institution participating in the Teacher Education Project may be visited once every other year by a member of the coordinator staff.* The visit continues for a day or two and is planned jointly by the coordinator and the host institution. Whether the visit turns out to be a red-letter day or just another event in the affairs of the college depends primarily upon the care and skill with which plans are made and carried out.

Functions of the Coordinator

1. *The Coordinator is NOT a "Jack-Of-All-Trades".* Throughout the process of making plans for the visit it is important to keep in mind the primary functions of the coordinator and of his/her visit. The coordinator comes from a busy life as a full-time college

*Beginning with the 1985-86 project year, the Coordinator Visits will be offered to all participating institutions regardless of location on a "cost" basis.

worker; activities as a coordinator are taken on in addition to regular duties. Therefore, the coordinator does not come to the local campus as an omniscient expert who is ready to provide the answers to any and all educational problems that may arise, and could not possibly be a specialist in all fields. The Committee Project would soon come to grief if the participating colleges were to use the coordinator to solve their own problems for them. The project not only does not pretend to offer such expert services; it recognizes the inevitable failure that would result from proceeding on such a basis.

2. *Sharing and Cooperation as the Basis for the Coordinator's Work.* The function of the coordinator is rather that of stimulating and assisting the host institution to plan and to execute teacher education studies and program development, especially by sharing with them the experiences of other institutions and by providing for interchange through direct contacts between two or more participating colleges. The fundamental basis of the entire project is that of sharing and cooperation; experience has shown that college faculties can be stimulated to increased interest and to more fruitful progress in the study of a great variety of problems by this means. The coordinator's visit is one of the important links in the chain used to foster the inspiration and assistance that can come from such interchange and cooperative endeavor.

3. *Summary of the Coordinator's Function.* The coordinator comes as a collaborator and as an aid. Special strengths of each coordinator generally lie in a knowledge of the activities in other colleges participating in the project, and in the ability to use techniques of group leadership in encouraging and assisting the host institution. Since the coordinators are outsiders with a background of visits to numerous colleges, they may be able to see the local situation, its needs and activities, in a fairly broad perspective and thus be able to point up some of its significant elements and interrelationships. The coordinator's visit, therefore, should be planned with a view to reaping the maximum values through the functions which he/she is expected to perform.

"The coordinator is NOT an evaluator for accreditation!"

Dates for the Coordinator's Visit

1. *Time of Year for the Visit.* The particular dates for the visit by the coordinator to the college campus should be worked out jointly between the coordinator and the individual designated by the president of the host institution. Many colleges have found that the coordinator can be most helpful early in the academic year by assisting in planning a program and getting it underway. This is very likely to be a sound choice, although some colleges prefer to have the visit come relatively late in the year so that they will have achieved certain progress or results which can be demonstrated to the

coordinator and presented for his/her examination.

2. *Two or Three Colleges Usually Included in One Trip.* Whenever possible the coordinator attempts to arrange to visit two or three colleges on the same trip. This is done not only to conserve time and energy and to reduce the extent of absence from her/his full-time position, but also to assure the most economical use of Teacher Education Project funds. The annual fee paid by the participating colleges would be all together inadequate if such combination visits were not employed as often as possible.

3. *Cooperation in Arranging and Abiding by the Dates for a Combination Trip.* It becomes important then that the several colleges which the coordinator desires to visit on a single trip cooperate by agreeing to a combination of dates which will make this possible. One way for the coordinator to facilitate this, after learning of the general time of year that visits are desired, is to present to the colleges several alternative dates on which such a combined trip can be made. It is especially important after the college has agreed on a date for the visit *that it abide by this agreement.*

Preparing for the Coordinator Visit

1. *Organizing for the Visit.* Initial contacts are made with the president of the institution regarding coordinator visitation schedules. The coordinator ordinarily will, at the same time, contact the person who represented the college at the previous Teacher Education Workshop regarding the visit. The coordinator may visit with the workshopper about the forthcoming visit; therefore, some plans will already have been proposed by the two in consultation with each other.

If there is a local Teacher Education Workshop Committee (in some instances consisting of former workshoppers) it may take the responsibility for planning the visit. If such a group does not exist, the person making arrangements will need to seek counsel where he/she can find it and will always make sure that appropriate administrative officials are consulted and that final plans are supported by them.

2. *Providing Advanced Information to the Coordinator.* The coordinator would appreciate receiving copies of published materials that describe the purpose, structure, and program of each college to be visited. This should include the brochures, a faculty handbook, if one is available, etc. Recent special reports of study group and research projects would also be of interest.

If the college is engaged in any special activities growing

out of the cooperative project, reports of these would be of particular interest to the coordinator. The coordinator should have a copy of the planned schedule of activities well before his/her arrival.

Preparing the Faculty for the Visits

The campus host responsible for making arrangements for the visit should make certain that appropriate faculty know about and understand the role of the coordinator. The detailed program prepared for this event should be publicized in advance. In this connection, special emphasis should be given to the function of the coordinator and what is or is not expected of him/her. This will not only avoid disillusionment on the part of faculty members who otherwise might erroneously expect the coordinator to "dish out all the answers" and pass judgement on local matters, but it will also pave the way for the host institution to profit in maximum measure from the visit.

Planning the Program for the Coordinator's Visit

1. *Planning in Terms of Local Needs.* If the college is to receive maximum benefit from the coordinator's visit, careful plans should be made for it. In general, these plans should rest not on what the coordinator wants, but on what the college would like to have the coordinator do in view of the function which he/she may be expected to serve. Suggestions from the coordinator, however, should be sought. Detailed information of the program and the schedule of meetings which are finally developed should be completed in advance of the visit.

2. *Length of the Visit.* The common practice is for the coordinator's visit to continue for a day or a day-and-a-half, although in special cases it may occupy two full days. The hours of arrival and departure of the coordinator should be ascertained in advance and plans should be made for utilizing all of the time while on the host campus to greatest advantage. This could include the evening of arrival if sufficient time is available.

3. *The Coordinator's Relationship to the Faculty, the Student Body, and the Study Committees.* The main purposes of the coordinator during the visit are to stimulate and to aid faculty and administrative committees which are engaged in institutional studies and program development. Except, however, for informing students or staff more fully of the purposes and values of the cooperative project, or discussing a problem which is of general and active concern for them, formal speeches are at best extra-curricular activities. The core of the plans made for the coordinator's visit should consist of meetings with committees that are studying institutional problems in general and teacher education problems specifically.

4. *Preparing for Committee Meetings with the Coordinator.* Careful plans should be made for each committee meeting. The coordinator should be quickly oriented and brought up to date on the most recent developments. A progress report prepared in advance, summarizing the work of the committee to date, defining problems and issues, outlining basic evidence, and listing questions still to be considered will be very helpful, along with an agenda for the meeting. Each committee member and the coordinator should be provided with a copy of such materials. The group should proceed as expeditiously as possible to a consideration of the topics and problems which have been prepared in advance for that purpose and listed in the agenda. *The coordinator will be a member of the group, participating in the discussion and answering questions presented, but in general, should not be expected to make a formal speech.*

5. *Additional Appropriate Activities:*

a. Coordinator meetings with student groups;

b. Coordinator meetings with administrative officers; These should provide an opportunity for mutual exchange of information and suggestions, and especially to give the administrators an opportunity to tell the coordinator exactly what they think of the project and how it can be improved. These meetings should, therefore, be held in private.

c. Coordinator meetings with individual faculty members;

d. Helping the coordinator to help other colleges; That feature of the college which may have special significance or interest to other institutions should be explained and, when possible, demonstrated. The coordinator should be given opportunities to observe them so that full information can be shared on visits to other colleges. Similarly, if there are any materials of special value that the college has recently produced, the coordinator should be provided with copies of them so that the information may be shared with other institutions.

6. *Planning the Visit to Assure the Greatest Values.* The foregoing discussion was designed to suggest some of the ingredients which might go into a good program for the coordinator's visit. No college is expected to include all of these suggestions for any one such event; in fact, the attempt to do so would probably require several days rather than only one or two. The particular activities included in the program for the visit should be chosen in the light of the needs of the local situation and the strengths of the coordinator. These suggestions are intended as an aid in making the coordinator's services most

fruitful to the college, not to dictate the program or to make the job easier. The coordinator would rather be worked hard during his stay and be of maximum help, than to have too little to do and not be of the greatest service.

Care, Feeding, and Housing of Coordinators

1. *Entertainment is Not Expected.* The chief reason for this final section is to make clear the fact that the college is not expected to entertain the coordinator during the visit. Each coordinator is reimbursed from the Teacher Education Project funds for all expenses.

2. *Use of Luncheon and Dinner Hours.* It may be remembered when making plans for meal times that the coordinator is on the campus primarily for educational purposes. Thus, the luncheon and dinner hours could appropriately be used for meetings in a convenient place with formal and/or informal groups or committees (if desired by the host institution).

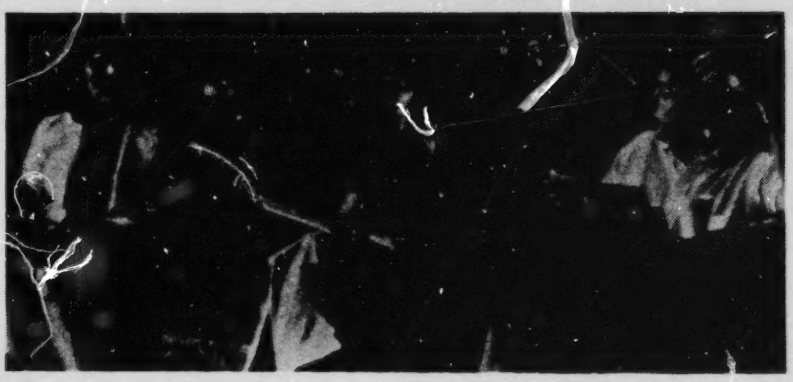
3. *Lodging for the Coordinator.* Since the campus visits are strenuous experiences for coordinators and since they desire to do their best while on the campus, most coordinators prefer to stay at a local motel if one is available, or in a college guest room, rather than being invited to a private home.

PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS 1984-1985

	Workshopper	President/Chancellor
ANDERSON COLLEGE Anderson, Indiana	Ted Bitner	Robert Nicholson
ARKANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY Jonesboro, Arkansas	Dorothy Trusock	Eugene Smith
BALL STATE UNIVERSITY Muncie, Indiana	Robert Taylor Karla Telfer* Coovi Datondji*	John Worthen
CHADRON STATE COLLEGE Chadron, Nebraska	Mary Horst	Edwin Nelson
NORTH CAROLINA UNIVERSITY AT GREENSBORO Greensboro, North Carolina	Shirley Haworth	William Moran

*Student Representatives

NORTHERN ARIZONA UNIVERSITY Flagstaff, Arizona	Don Platz	Eugene Hughes
OKLAHOMA BAPTIST UNIVERSITY Shawnee, Oklahoma	Jimmie Russell Norris Russell	Bob Agee
SCHOOL OF THE OZARKS Point Lookout, Missouri	Teresa Martin	Stephen Jennings
TAYLOR UNIVERSITY Upland, Indiana	Helen Rogers	Gregg Lehman



Dr. Shirley Haworth, Director of Teacher Education at the University of North Carolina, Greensboro, serves as the Southern Liaison Representative to the North Central Association Teacher Education Project. She has been a 1984 and 1985 workshopper.

CHAPTER II

THE 37th ANNUAL WORKSHOP

Summer, 1984

Purposes of the Workshop

The summer workshop is one of the basic activities of the cooperative project and is designed to serve the institutions and their individual representatives. Purposes are as follows:

1. to provide member institutions specialized information on timely topics developed and disseminated by workshop participants;

2. to enhance the professional knowledge and acquaintances of participants;

3. to develop contributions to the State of the Art in Teacher Education.

Sponsorship

The 1984 workshop was made possible with the help of Ball State University, the North Central Association, and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Each participating institution contributed to this project through a general fee of which a part was assigned to provide support for the summer workshop. In addition, the institution or the individual workshop participant covered living and other incidental expenses. Although the workshop could not exist without member and participant support, the host institution bore a sizeable portion of the costs. Ball State University provided a portion of the costs and through the Office of the Director of Secondary Teacher Education and the Department of Secondary, Higher and Foundations of Education provided facilities, equipment and personnel. Various departments contributed speakers; the library contributed personnel services and complete use of facilities; and many other individuals and organizations assisted individual workshoppers.

Workshop Personnel

1984

Participants

TED BITNER
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COOVI DATONDJI
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Muncie, Indiana 47306

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Assistant Professor of English
Arkansas State University
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Workshop Staff

Donald W. Jones, Director, Secondary Teacher Education, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana 47306 and Chairman, North Central Association Teacher Education Project

John P. Strouse, Workshop Consultant/Staff, Chair, Department Secondary, Higher and Foundations of Education, Ball State University

Dennis B. Redburn, Workshop Consultant/Staff, Coordinator of Student Teaching, Ball State University

Pat McBride, Graduate Assistant, Ball State University

Linda Ritchie, Workshop Secretary

Visiting Lecturers and Consultants

Lovely Billups directed the workshop participants in a group activity. "Interactive Interviews" are "designed to enhance interpersonal understanding among peoples of diverse cultural backgrounds." The interview outline led the group into sharing with a human dimension. Billups, in working with teachers, encourages them to show the "threads of commonality" between cultures rather than differences. Billups continued to draw the workshop theme into how teachers can create a more human learning environment. She pointed out in "Administrative Style and Teacher Morale" that principals play an important role in creating the environment of the school. Lovely Billups currently serves as Director of Field Services, Educational Issues Department, American Federation of Teachers.

Richard Kunkel, Executive Director of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, began his presentation with the open-ended statement: "In my opinion the most crucial alliances for teacher educators in the next three years must be with...." After discussion of several possible alliances Kunkel led into discussion of duplication of services and communication gaps. "Say it simple, Stupid." "We duplicate because we think we can do it better." "Arrogance and elitism breed duplication." Kunkel then went into a discussion of NCATE's six new tenets of education.

George Elford spoke to the group about the National Teachers Examinations developed by Educational Testing Service. The first of three points he stressed was: ETS is a non-profit organization. Its purposes are to deliver testing services to other non-profit organizations, to support educational research, and to attempt to influence the proper use of testing in general society. Second, ETS must review tests in a legal context. Legal defense of the

NTE rests upon appropriate content and rationally determined passing scores. Third, the National Teacher Examinations have been researched to produce the present core battery and specialty area tests. Elford noted, "The highest ethical responsibility (of ETS) is to be accurate...." George Elford is the Director of the Midwest Regional Office, Educational Testing Services, Evanston, Illinois.

Donna Gollnick drove from Washington, D.C., to address the group regarding structure and activities of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. In the redesign NCATE, AACTE has eight of twenty-five constituent seats at a cost of $9,500 per seat. NEA has an equal number. Other constituent members hold one seat per organization. AACTE publishes monthly briefs as well as the Journal of Teacher Education. Task forces of AACTE deal with international education, multicultural education, certification, pre-professional level of safe practice, professional development, quality, technology, human services, school health, and accreditation. One may apply to serve on a task force if his/her institution is a member of AACTE. Donna Gollnick has participated in several NCA workshops; she is the Director of Professional Development for the AACTE.

Ted Kowalski, Dean of Teachers College at Ball State and a former school superintendent, discussed the human dimension from an administrator's point of view. He stated four existing conditions in education: 1) Most schools of education are doing what they did twenty or thirty years ago; 2) Public education has become a target of public criticism; 3) Colleges of education are targets; and 4) A lot of activity at the state legislature level will have to be carried out by teachers colleges. Kowalski stated that people in education are not change oriented. However, teacher education institutions are under siege and institutions under siege will have to change to win. "We must convince faculty to 'jump in the fox hole,' be risk takers," he said. Kowalski went on to list attributes of good leadership and to discuss why flexibility is important. The steps he gave to "win the war" are to establish that teacher education does make a difference and to upgrade clinical requirements.

Only a few weeks prior to the beginning of the North Central Association Teacher Education Workshop, Dr. John Worthen officially assumed the responsibility as President of Ball State University. Among his first tasks which enabled him to represent Ball State to representatives from other institutions was a visit to our workshop. Dr. Worthen not only welcomed the workshoppers, but also presented cogent thoughts about the human dimension in higher education. His rich experiences in a variety of capacities in institutions of higher education enabled him to relate meaningful information for all workshoppers. Following the presentation, President Worthen engaged in a question/discussion session which was both stimulating and informative.

Workshop Organization

General Sessions

Organization of the 1984 workshop encouraged all workshop participants to attend the full three weeks. As shown in the Workshop Calendar for the second week of the workshop which follows, there were several general sessions each week. Usually each workshop day opened with a brief assembly for the purpose of making announcements and reports of concern to the entire group. Informal group gatherings occurred at coffee breaks in the mid-morning and at meals. One of the general sessions during the final week was devoted to reports from the various working groups. These reports provided each working seminar a means of integrating and evaluating its work, gave each participant an account of the achievements and problems of other work groups, and provided a body of research and opinion in various aspects of teacher education to be added to the similar contributions of past workshops.

Workshop Schedule for the Second Week

Sunday, July 29	
8:00 p.m.	Social at Jones Residence
Monday, July 30	
8:00 a.m.	NCA Teacher Education Project Committee Panel Don Deselms Clark Elkins Wayne Huddleston Mossie Richmond Donald Jones Discussion
9:30 a.m.	Dr. Rich Kunkel (NCATE) "New Alliances for Teacher Education"
1:30 p.m.	NCA Teacher Education Project Committee Meeting
2:30 p.m.	Richard Kunkel
3:30 p.m.	Planning for Phase II
Tuesday, July 31	
9:00 a.m.	Workshop Committees
9:30 a.m.	Lovely Billups (AFT) "Human Relations in Teaching"

1:30 p.m.	Lovely Billups "Applying Research to Classrooms"
3:00 p.m.	Establish Phase II Project Groups and have initial meeting

Wednesday, August 1

9:00 a.m.	Workshop Committees
9:15 a.m.	Group Work
1:30 p.m.	Study Time
3:30 p.m.	Presentation of Schools
6:30 p.m.	Workshop Picnic

Thursday, August 2

9:00 a.m.	Workshop Committees
9:15 a.m.	Group Work
1:30 p.m.	Study Time
3:30 p.m.	Presentation of Schools
8:00 p.m.	BSU Summer Theater "COLE"

Friday, August 3

9:00 a.m.	Workshop Committees
9:15 a.m.	Donna Gollnick (AACTE) "The AACTE is Committed to Professional Preparation"
1:30 p.m.	Individual Conferences with Donna Gollnick

Workshop Theme Development

The topic of the workshop, "The Human Dimension of Teacher Education for the 21st Century", prompted discussion and reflection as participants in the workshop made efforts to define the topic. We did not wish to rehash humanistic education of the 1950's and 1960's and yet we found ourselves back among those authors and in that vocabulary because so little emphasis is currently being made today to encourage human caring in our education systems. Technology and statistics are today's keywords. Dorothy Trusock, in "Veni, Vidi, ... Education 2084" (see page 172) expresses this well.

Workshop Theme Groups

There were two theme subgroups identified by the workshop participants as dimensions of the overal workshop theme. Each workshopper worked within one of these groups studying and reporting on the topic of the theme subgroup. Listed below are the subgroups and the names of those who worked on them.

GROUP A

If the Human Dimension is the Base of the Pyramid for Teacher Education, Where is the Research Support?

Shirley Haworth
Norris Russell
Bob Taylor
Don Platz
Karla Telfer

GROUP B

Humanistic Teacher Education:
What Ought to Be

Ted Bitner
Coovi Datondji
Mary Horst
Teresa Martin
Helen Rogers
Jimmie Russell
Dorothy Trusock

Procedural Committees

Three committees were organized to handle routine work necessary for the operation of an effective workshop.

1. The Resource Committee was in charge of setting up procedures for the utilization of and the accounting for the books and materials used in the workshop. This committee also explored and reported to the total group procedures for using the university libraries. The scheduling of special reports by fellow workshoppers was handled by the Resource Committee, as well as making arrangements for audio-visual equipment.

Norris Russell
Bob Taylor
Teresa Martin

2. The Editorial Committee was asked to accept major responsibility for providing guidance to the total workshop in the planning and preparation of written reports. Editorial services were arranged, and a common access to secretarial assistance was maintained.

Don Platz
Ted Bitner
Coovi Datondji
Dorothy Trusock

3. The Social Committee was active throughout the entire three-week period. A wide variety of activities was arranged, some of which were designed for all, while others met the needs of small groups. Since the membership of the group remained constant every week, the Social Committee became a committee of the whole. However, leadership and direction were provided by the following:

Shirley Haworth
Karla Telfer
Mary Horst
Helen Rogers
Jimmie Russell

Some of the social activities included the opening of the workshop with a social occasion at the Kitselman Conference Center near the Ball State campus. Participants with name tags greeted each other; some were old friends, some new. Barbara Jones conducted a tour of the lovely mansion, which was donated to Ball State University by the Kitselman family.

Bob Taylor invited the group to dinner at his home in the woods. Out-of-state participants got a good look at Hoosier farmland as they searched the country roads for the mailbox in the woods beyond the blue silos.

NCA Teacher Education Project Committee members were introduced at an evening get-together at the home of Dr. Don and Dr. Barbara Jones.

A steak dinner cookout was held at the home of Dr. and Mrs. Strouse. Although the home is located close to Muncie, visitors had a chance to see a real Indiana farm with corn and soybeans in the nearby fields.

Some participants drove as far as Cincinnati to shop and see the Cincinnati Reds baseball game. Indianapolis shopping centers were not too far for the hearty. Locally, shops and restaurants were thoroughly investigated. Ball State students provided an evening theater production while Dunkin Donuts increased their profits for morning offerings.

The "awards banquet" was held at Butterfields in Muncie, and then progressed to the home of Don and Barbara Jones for more privacy. Here the "academy awards" were presented by Jimmie and Norris Russell. Personal achievements of participants were recognized. In addition, as members of the local Blue Ribbon Committee, every participant received his/her own blue ribbon.

For the past fifteen years Dr. Donald Jones has served as the Director of the annual workshop. He has also been the Chairman of the NCA Teacher Education Project Committee since 1969.

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CHAPTER III

INITIAL POSITION STATEMENTS

As the participants of the 1984-85 Summer Workshop assembled for our initial orientation, considerable uncertainty regarding the exact, precise theme of the workshop became evident. Difficulty in focusing, differences in perception, varying personal goals and something as simple as the absence of a uniform vocabulary surfaced as blocks to group activity. Discussion, examination, exploration, analysis, comparisons; all were strained. The realization that such uncertainty was present led to a direct frontal attack upon this problem.

The ammunition which would be selected for the frontal assault was the preparation of three basic position papers on the topic, "What Is Meant By The Phrase, 'The Human Dimension in Teacher Education'". The following three papers served as discussion pieces, and eventually they led to the identification of issues to be further examined by the entire workshop.

NORTH CENTRAL

ON BEING HUMAN: THE THIRD DIMENSION IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Jimmie Russell
Don Platz
Coovie Datondji
Dorothy Trusock

Man's ability to care for his fellow man is the cornerstone of the human dimension. This cornerstone must be built on a solid foundation of self-concept. When the human dimension is present, an atmosphere of trust, respect, and acceptance is created. Ultimately to be able to show another that his feelings, his opinions, and his person are of value is the realization of this dimension.

Applied to teacher education the human element is that aspect which makes the teaching and learning process humane. It allows the teacher educator to consider the students as human beings prior to and throughout the learning tasks that are involved. The caring attitude displayed by the teacher educator would then allow the prospective teachers to consider their own students as individuals who possess human characteristics and can provide motivation for those students who lack the ability, desire or purpose to learn the subject matter provided. It further allows the prospective teacher to implement a needs curriculum that provides students with the opportunity to achieve while maintaining self-esteem. It permits teachers and students to meet their individual goals in education.

The Human Dimension Past and Present

While man's ability to care for his fellow man is the cornerstone of the human dimension, caring has not always been nor presently is a universal condition of teacher education. Since the formal beginnings of pedagogy in the United States during the nineteenth century, the human dimension has been, at best, only an intermittent theme in the ongoing development of the profession. It perhaps has taken roots among a few in teacher education, but it has not become a continuing major force that is ever-present.

In an effort to understand the condition of teacher

regarding the human dimension, we need to turn our attention to the birth of pedagogy in the United States, the normal school. The organization for the first normal school began in 1838, and by 1900 there were 345 normal schools in operation (Pulliam, 1976, p. 98). For the most part, the normal school curriculum had little attention paid to the needs of the individual learner; neither did the admission standards try to attract prospective teachers with humanistic values. If students had a general understanding of the 3 R's and also had, "freedom of disease and satisfactory evidence of good intellectual capacity and high moral character with principles," (Mangun, 1982, pp. 290-291), they were considered prospective teachers.

One movement during the normal school era did, however, emerge as support for the human dimension in teacher education. The Oswego schools developed by Edward Austin Sheldon and based on Pestalozzian theory included new teaching techniques, which were methods to foster respect for the unique personality of the child (Pulliam, 1976, p. 99). Mutual respect and understanding, child study, and new principles for working with children were also developed as part of the Oswego teacher education model.

As the normal school curricula expanded to four year programs, a second era in pedagogy evolved. This period in time saw teacher education continue to work towards establishing appropriate content curriculum. It was also influenced by the development of behavioristic psychology. Both of these conditions provided little opportunity for teacher education institutions to consider strongly a place in the curriculum for humanistic aspects of teaching.

The progressive movement emerged during this era to give, though short lived, some consideration to the human dimension. With the child-centered orientation of the progressive movement, some prospective teachers had the opportunity to look beyond the content and assessment of education. Dewey and others, however, felt that perhaps the failings of the progressive movement were due to the fact that the subject-centered curriculum was given insufficient attention (Stoff & Schwartzbe 1973, p. 112).

The third era of teacher education witnessed the greatest attention to the human dimension in our profession. Beginning with the early 50's and moving into the 1970's humanistic psychology, the humanistic approach to education, slowly began to flourish. The notions of humanistic psychologists such as Arthur Combs, Abraham Maslow, Gordon Allport, and Carl Rodgers allowed education and subsequently teacher education to "concentrate on unique development of each individual." (Mason, 1972, p. 219)

The work of the humanistic psychology, perhaps, was strengthened by the growing student rebellion against the schools, the curriculum, and teacher approaches. Schools were not being sensitive to the needs of students. While student unrest may have been influenced by other factors, it brought attention to our institutions and forced them to look for alternative human approaches to teaching. The works of A.S. Neill, Charles Silberman, John Holt, and others made us stop and consider how we can better teach and prepare teachers for the school environment. Two educators, Iannone and Carline, (1970) initiated a humanistic approach to teacher education in response to the challenge.

Though the humanistic movement in teaching and teacher education did prosper during the era, the movement experienced a setback because of Sputnik. This resulted in a shift back to the subject-centered curriculum. Though the humanistic movement was not halted, potential fundings seemed to be directed away from the movement.

The current era in teacher education once again finds the human dimension in question. Kliebard (1972, p. 403-404) sees four paradigms for debate in teacher education: behavioristic teacher education, personalistic-teacher education, traditional craft teacher education, and inquiry-oriented teacher education. Each of these has been present in one form or another since the turn of the century.

Behavioristic teacher education, which today emphasizes the competency-based teacher education approach, perhaps has received the greatest attention. The personalistic approach, which includes humanistic education, is still present, but little formal effort has been developed to maintain the momentum of the preceeding era. The traditional-craft approach supports the "learn by doing" concept and has received renewed attention while the inquiry-oriented teacher education approach has maintained visibility through cognitive issues that have been investigated in recent years. The personalistic teacher education approach is evident in some programs throughout the country; unfortunately, its presence has been diminished by the competency-based teacher education movement and seemingly, state legislated mandates that are currently affecting and questioning the issue of governance in teacher education.

In reviewing past and contemporary conditions, it would appear that while the human dimension has had its high points since the beginnings of pedagogy in the United States, it has not been a major nor a consistent part of teacher education. From the Oswego schools to the progressive school movement to the more recent humanistic education development, the human dimension has bloomed but has not become a partner to teacher education.

Humanistic efforts, moreover, have manifested themselves in the hearts and minds of many teachers and teacher educators. This manifestation will hopefully allow for the human dimension to be cyclic and appear again as a major partner in teacher education with subject-knowledge and methodology.

The Three Dimensions

In the educational setting, teachers and students can achieve their objectives most effectively when good teaching occurs and when the teachers and the students have mutual respect and acceptance. Therefore, teacher educators must be able to identify the qualities of a good teacher and good teaching, and they must share this knowledge with prospective teachers. Most teacher educators would agree that the three major components necessary for good teachers are knowledge, methods, and the human dimension/human relations. Most educators, however, would not give equal weight to these three aspects of good teaching because they are not always considered equally important.

In reviewing the literature, Kong (1970, p. 23-24) identifies twenty-seven functions of teaching. An examination of these components reveals that they are an expansion of the twelve functions which are discussed by Rath (1971, p. 4). (See Chart) Each of these functions falls within the schema of knowledge, methods, and human relations. Furthermore, in an article entitled "Desirable Behaviors of Teachers," Gage (p. 11-15) discusses five characteristics of teacher behavior or teacher traits: warmth, cognitive organization, orderliness, indirectness, and the ability to solve instructional problems. Each of these characteristics also fits into the three components of good teaching. Teacher educators seem to agree that these are the basic ingredients of effective teaching.

CHART #1

TWELVE FUNCTIONS OF TEACHING *

KNOWLEDGE DIMENSION	METHODS DIMENSION	HUMAN DIMENSION
1. Explain, inform	1. Explain, inform, show how	1. Explain, inform
2.	2. Initiating, directing, administering (classroom only)	2.
3. Clarifying attitudes beliefs, problems	3. Clarifying attitudes, beliefs, problems	3. Clarifying attitudes, beliefs, problems
4. Diagnosing learning problems	4. Diagnosing learning problems	4. Diagnosing learning problems
5. Making curriculum materials	5. Making curriculum materials	5. Making curriculum materials
6.	6. Evaluating, recording, reporting	6. Evaluating, recording, reporting
7. Enriching community activities	7. Enriching community activities	7. Enriching community activities
8.	8. Arranging and organizing classroom	8. Arranging and organizing classroom
9. Participating in school activities	9. Participating in school activities	9. Participating in school activities
10. Participating in professional and civic activities	10. Participating in professional and civic activities	10. Participating in professional and civic activities
11.	11.	11. Unifying the group
12.	12.	12. Giving security

* THE TWELVE FUNCTIONS ARE QUOTED FROM RATH (1971-p.4).

In examining the components, knowledge is considered to be the basic element because good teachers must have knowledge of appropriate subject matter. While knowledge is a necessary element, alone it is not a sufficient cause of good teaching. Teachers must be able to transmit their knowledge of the subject matter to the students; at this stage the necessity of the methods component becomes evident. Rath (1971, p. 4) reinforces this concept when he says:

> The good teacher is expected to be well informed in the areas in which he teaches. He is expected to be able to communicate information needed for background, enrichment, and motivation, and on many occasions to explain relationships to children.

Because the term "teach" implies the ability to communicate a body of knowledge, this knowledge must be relevant to the learner and taught in a systematic way. The communication of information is a skill which a person can learn; it, too, is a necessary but not sufficient cause of good teaching. Combs (1978, p. 558-559) says that teaching students what they need to know about philosophy, psychology, sociology, and methods, then sending them out to 'practice' teach is not enough. It is not enough because the teacher needs another dimension, the human-relations skills. The attitude conveyed by the teacher and the resulting atmosphere are direct consequences of the human dimension.

The human dimension which is an integral but often neglected aspect in teacher training is the third and final component of good teaching. Delong (1982, p. 10) quotes a high school principal who said, "Being able to work with the human element is the most important characteristic a teacher or principal can have." All educators would not agree that the human dimension is the most important characteristic; however, its necessity as an integral component is undeniable. Rath (p. 5) notes "the teacher with love and affection in abundance is creating a climate which makes it easier for these children to learn." This attention to the human dimension would result in a solid self-concept for the student, which is a crucial component. (Wirth, 1977, p. 33) (Newberg, 1982, p. 499).

Rath (1971, p. 4) has identified twelve functions of good teaching which are contained, all or part, in the three components of good teaching: knowledge, methods, and human relations which the chart on page 35 of this report illustrates. In our attempt to categorize the functions under these three headings, we began to realize that the functions are not isolated; rather, they are interrelated. The integral nature of these components becomes apparent as one examines the chart; therefore, every teacher needs to develop each of the dimensions to be an effective educator.

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THE HUMAN DIMENSION OF TEACHER EDUCATION FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

Robert Taylor
Shirley Haworth
Karla Telfer
Helen Rogers

As most people look at schools, what they see are people rather than equipment; therefore, discussing the human dimension seems redundant. People do dominate the picture--teachers, students, principals, cafeteria workers, custodians, bus drivers--all people doing their jobs.

Yet it is apparent that there are different ways people can do their jobs. One can complete the same task in at least two different ways because of a different stance, a different motivation, a different attitude. Viktor Frankl describes the alternative ways that prison guards and prisoners functioned at Auschwitz:

> It is apparent that the mere knowledge that a man was either a camp guard or a prisoner tells us almost nothing. Human kindness can be found in all groups, even those which as a whole it would be easy to condemn. The boundaries between groups overlapped and we must not try to simplify matters by saying that these men were angels and those were devils. Certainly, it was a considerable achievement for a guard or foreman to be kind to the prisoners in spite of all the camp's influence, and, on the other hand, the baseness of a prisoner who treated his own companions badly was exceptionally contemptible.
>
> From all this we may learn that there are two races of men in this world, but only these two - the "race" of the decent man and the "race" of the indecent man. Both are found everywhere; they penetrate into all groups of society. No group consists entirely of decent or indecent people. In this sense, no group is of "pure race" -- and therefore one occasionally found a decent fellow among the camp guards (Frankl, 1963, pp. 136-137).

The purpose of this paper is to encourage the people of schools to choose to become one of the "race of the decent man." While recent writers have compared schools to prisons this is not to equate a teacher with a prison guard or a student with a prisoner, rather it is to say that each person has choices in how to relate to individuals and that those choices influence the self-concept of the people involved:

> We who lived in concentration camps can remember the men who walked through the huts comforting others, giving away their last piece of bread. They may have been few in number, but they offer sufficient proof that everything can be taken from a man but one thing: the last of the human freedoms -- to choose one's attitude in any given set of circumstances, to choose one's own way (Frankl, 1963, p. 104).

Some educators are reconsidering the human dimension in schools and the values of Third Force psychologists such as Frankl because of the impact of computers and automation in their own lives. A sweeping wave of technology is changing society and threatening traditions. Which patterns can be changed and which traditions must be maintained to preserve a society of decent men? Will students become only numbers? Will workers be displaced by machines? Will the very existence of human beings take the essence of meaninglessness? Will educators find themselves prisoners in a camp guarded by technicians who are holding the powerful guns of technology?

The immediate response may be that an educated, cultured society will not, cannot, sink to such levels of insensitivity. Frankl refutes such optimism.

> As this story is about my experiences as an ordinary prisoner, it is important that I mention, not without pride, that I was not employed as a psychiatrist in camp, or even as a doctor, except for the last few weeks. ...I was Number 119,140, and most of the time I was digging and laying tracks for railway lines. (Frankl, 1963, p. 10)
>
> It is very difficult for an outsider to grasp how very little value was placed on human life in camp. The camp inmate was hardened, but possibly became more conscious of this complete disregard of human existence when a convoy of sick men was arranged. The emaciated bodies of

> the sick were thrown on two-wheeled carts which were drawn by prisoners for many miles, often through snowstorms, to the next camp. If one of the sick men had died before the cart left, he was thrown on anyway--the list had to be correct! The list was the only thing that mattered. A man counted only because he had a prison number. One literally became a number: dead or alive -- that was unimportant; the life of a "number" was completely irrelevant. What stood behind that number and that life mattered even less: the fate, the history, the name of the man (Frankl., 1963, p. 83).

Becoming a number was a reality at Auschwitz. Because computers use numbers as unique identifiers for persons, becoming only a number is a reality today.

At the conclusion of Frank Winkler's insightful book Man: Between Two Worlds, Winkler concludes that the new frontier, ".. does not lie in outer space but in the human soul" (Winkler, 1960, p. 251). The bewilderment of today's events portends an uncertain and dangerous future. We no longer have meaning in our lives and Winkler challenges us that, "New resources must be opened in the human soul, if man is not to lose himself in the conquest of outer space or turn his heart to stone while building a civilization of robots" (Winkler, 1960, p. 251). Man straddles a fine line between two worlds -- the material and nonmaterial -- where a fragile ego tries to hold a course. In the 1960's, educators had another opportunity to support the self of the individual learner as Third Force psychology blew into the educational scene like a refreshing wind upon teachers, some of whom had intuitively placed the individual learner in the center of the curriculum. It was short lived; now armed with computer technology and increased confidence in behaviorism, educators venture forth to shape the frail student ego. The last vestige of freedom and moral choice reside between two currents, one rising from the depths while the other descends from the heights (Winkler, 1960, p. 238). The louder, stronger voice of technology and behaviorism denies the opportunity of the learner even to consider that he may have intuitive perceptions where the historic reservoir lies waiting to be tapped. The burgeoning psyche awaits a renaissance spirit in the form of intuitions, images, and cognitions.

What does it mean that there is a paucity of literature of Third Force psychology in the 80's? Could it be that educators are no longer concerned with the self of the learner? In Riesman's terms are we returning to the other directed man while the hope was that humans were evolving more toward

inner directedness? (Riesman, 1950) George Marconette, education philosopher, commented in an interview that we are moving from a mortal to a legalistic society; a contrast not unlike the position of old and new testament of the scriptures. Again society seems to be taking a step backwards.

How then does one define the human dimension? A contrast of human and machine can be made. Machines have no feelings, no emotions; a human being does. A contrast of human and animal can be made. A human hopes and reasons, and is motivated; animals function instinctively. The human dimension then in education is characterized by one who has concern for others, is innerdirected, and values a meaningful life for himself and for others.

The agonizing personal conflict experienced by the dramatic query - "To be or not to be" from Hamlet, poses the dilemma not only of man's patient possibility, but also his frustrating challenge within the human predicament, your own humanness (Kurtz, 1971, p. 20), Kurtz makes the point that although man may be the center of intensified study, the person and his humanness are not static objects or things. Third Force psychology offers one answer. Rogers developed a humanistically oriented approach to personality dynamics that utilized the unity and consistency of the self as a basic theme.

Contemporary humanism has its unique character in the heightened demand from those who wish to be perceived as persons and not simply as cogs in a mechanical system. (Gale, 1974, p. xi) The technological society may seem to offer more results than it can deliver; therefore, those concerned with the human dimension cannot stand quietly by if they observe a dehumanizing use of humanness verses machines. In the humanistic model of man, certain concepts such as dignity, worth, faith, acceptance, openness, freedom and responsibility are significant considerations to each person perceiving himself and his world through the vehicle of ongoing experiences.

We are concerned not just with yesterday's assessment of man and his need for finding the human dimension, but also with the positive view of contemporary man in the "here and now" and the great *need for* and *right to* humanness in all areas of education and life.

To understand the contemporary conditions of teaching, one must step away from the immediate arena in order to perceive better where we are and how we got here, as well as where we might be headed. Margaret Mead wrote cogently of the cycles through which culture is transmitted:

> ...I have found it useful to distinguish between those cultures in which change is so slow that it seems as if a child's cultural expectations could be defined at birth and those in which change was more rapid so that some young people and even some adults had to learn from their peers rather than from their elders. We have now entered a new phase, in which adults all over the world have to recognize that all children's experience is different from their own (Mead, 1978, p. 13).

Mead labeled these cultural styles or cycles as post figurative (the future repeats the past), configurative (the present is the guide to future expectations), and prefigurative (elders must learn from children about experiences which they never had).

To illustrate the plight of the young caught in the struggle of our culture's transition from configurative to prefigurative, Mead presented the following essay by a fifteen-year-old Texan boy:

> There is a mass confusion in the minds of my generation in trying to find a solution for ourselves and the world around us.
>
> We see the world as a huge rumble as it swiftly goes by with wars, poverty, prejudice, and the lack of understanding among people and nations.
>
> Then we stop and think: there must be a better way and we have to find it.
>
> We see the huge rat race of arguing people trying to beat their fellow man out. All of this builds up, causing unrest between nations and in the home. My generation is being used almost like a machine. We are to learn to set standards, strive for better education so we can follow in our elders footsteps. Buy why? If we are to be a generation of repetition, the situation will be worse. But how shall we change? We need a great deal of love for everyone, we need universal understanding among people, we need to think of ourselves and to express our feelings, but that is not all. I have yet to

> discover what else we need, nor have I practiced these things as fully as I should. Because when I try I'm sneered at by my elders and those who do not hear, or look at it with a closed mind. Computers take the place of minds; electronics are taking over, only confusing things more.
>
> Sometimes I walk down a deserted beach listening to the waves and birds and I hear them forever calling and crying and sometimes we feel that way but everyone goes on with his own little routines, afraid to stop and listen for fear of cracking their nutshell.
>
> The answer is out there somewhere. We need to search for it (Mead, 1978, pp. 74-75).

How poignantly Mead and the adolescent boy point to the need for enhancing the role of the human dimension in teacher education. Students preparing at this time to be teachers will be encountering classes filled with youngsters who are confused by the realities of their world. All pre-service teachers are closer to the adolescent's "nearly prefigurative" cultural experiences than to their own professors who probably grew up in the configurative culture and still value it.

Mead understood this problem - this discrepancy between the cultural cycles experienced by different generations within our society. She insisted "We must create new models for adults who can teach their children not what to learn but how to learn, not what they should be committed to but the value of commitment" (Mead, 1978, p. 87).

As you review in your mind the practices of teacher educators in present day university settings, you may be hard pressed to bring to the fore examples of curriculum or teaching practices which prepare teachers to function in models such as the one proposed by Mead. Teaching is a human relationship. Understanding people, their values, and their behavior is of prime importance. Combs states:

> Teachers need a clear and consistent frame of reference about people and their behavior to serve as a guide in dealing with them... The good teacher's psychology must be more accurate, however. It must be a point of view to which the teacher is deeply committed, for without personal involvement no point of view has any significant effect on behavior (Combs, 1974, p. 24).

Clearly, if teacher educators are to create in their students an awareness of the human dimension of teaching, their behavior must embody human qualities. Teacher educators must engage in practices which enhance the development of positive self-concepts on the part of prospective teachers.

> How a teacher behaves after he leaves the portals of his college will be very largely determined by how he has learned to see himself and his relationships to his students, his subject matter, his administrators, and to the profession of teaching itself. Teacher education must thus become as student-centered as we have hoped the teachers we are currently producing would be in their own classrooms. (Combs, et al., 1974, p. 18)

The powerful role of modeling by teacher educators in the areas of curriculum building, instructional technique, and evaluation must be understood in its relationship to the human dimension of teacher education. All too often teacher educators suffer from severe rhetoric/action gaps in these areas. They *talk* about curriculum development and instructional techniques which would help the aforementioned Texan in his search for a better way. They *talk* about the need to build positive self-concept of youngsters in K-12 classrooms while they themselves use instructional techniques and evaluation procedures which all too often damage the self-concept of future teachers.

The teacher educator must be a teaching exemplar. His/her teaching must reflect what is known about effective teaching. The modeling which teacher educators provide - the action - speaks so loudly that the content they wish to deliver becomes nothing more than frail rhetoric. THE TEACHER EDUCATOR MUST *DO* THE HUMAN DIMENSION EVERY DAY.

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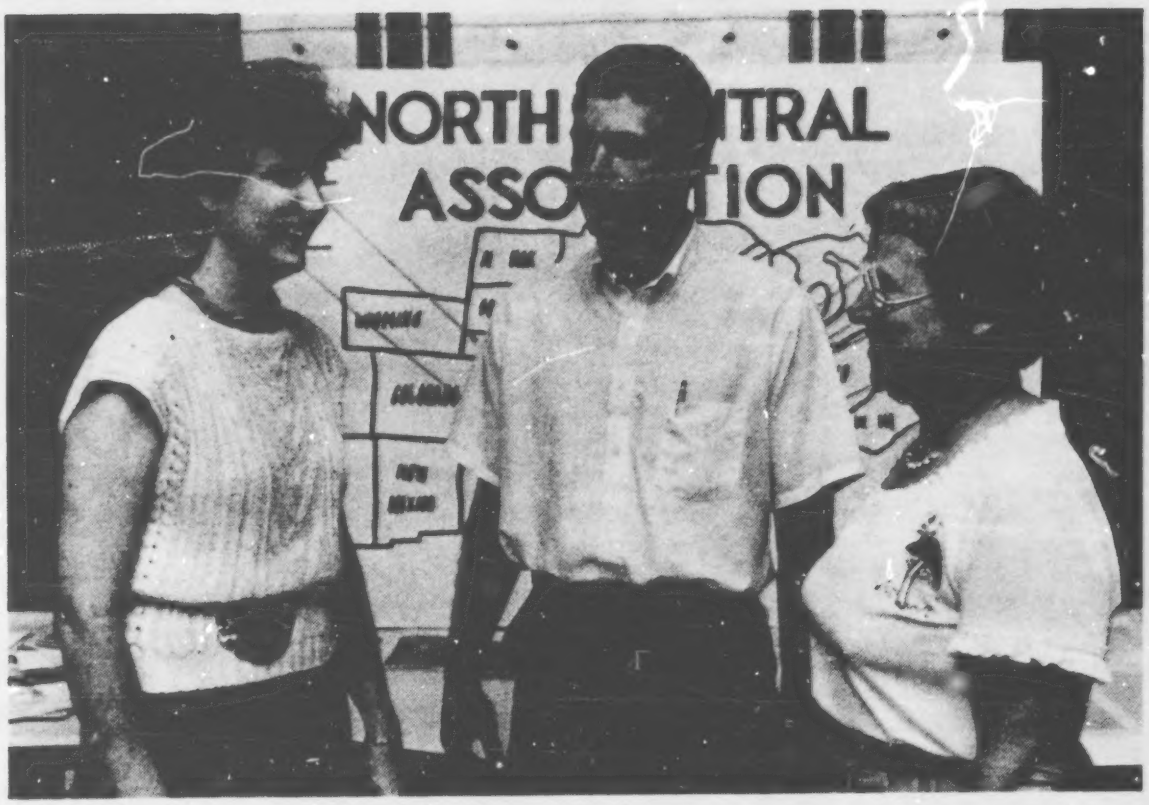
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AFFECTIVE AND EFFECTIVE TEACHING: THE HUMAN DIMENSION OF TEACHER EDUCATION FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

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Exactly what is the human dimension? More than likely, it is some nebulous concept which eludes a sound definition. Indeed, the more one reads, the more this seems to be the case. However, as with any concept, perhaps a discussion of the roots from which it comes and the various contexts in which it has been and will be used will shed some light onto its true significance, not only just for teacher education, but ultimately for all of the educational process.

An examination of humanist philosophy should give some insight into the particular orientation that the human dimension might take. Wandersam, Poppen, and Ricks (1976, p. 12) in discussing humanist philosophy state that:

> Humanists study man as a conscious agent with feelings, ideals, and intentions, and believe these factors are crucial to the understanding of behavior. Such a view of human beings has led to a concern with human growth, personal fulfillment, and self-actualization...it involves an effort to fulfill the individual's potential by exploring the behavioral characteristics and emotional dynamics that can lead to personal development.

Further, and in application of humanistic philosophy to building a societal structure, Koening (1981, p. 8) stresses that the humanistic society is one which promotes the "dignity" of the individual.

When applying a humanistic philosophy to an education enterprise, a humanistic educational system becomes one which places the needs, interests, values, and dignity of the student as the central focus of its efforts. Indeed, Combs (1981, p. 446) reports that, according to the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, humanistic education is:

> "a committment to educational practice in which all facets of the teaching/learning process give major emphasis to the freedom, value, worth, dignity, and integrity of persons."

He goes on to ennumerate several characteristics of humanistic education by stating that it:

1. accepts the learners needs and purposes and develops programs accordingly
2. facilitates self-actualization and strives to develop a sense of personal adequacy
3. fosters acquisition of skills necessary for living in a multi-cultural society including interpersonal, personal, and communicative processes
4. personalizes educational decisions and practices
5. recognizes the primacy of human feelings and uses personal values as integral factors in the process
6. develops a learning climate that nurtures learning environments perceived by individuals as challenging
7. develops a genuine concern and respect for the worth of others and skill in conflict resolution.

Only with these concepts in mind, then, can one get a better grasp of what is meant by the human dimension in teacher education. It has its roots in humanist philosophy and encompasses all of the feelings, attitudes, actions, and communications about self and others that affect interpersonal relationships involved in the "art" of teaching. Although, in its present sense, this dimension seemingly defies quantitative measurement, its effects on teaching and learning are significant since it impinges on all that takes place in the field of teacher education.

Perhaps the "human dimension" can be thought of as the underlying force that motivates teacher educators to turn ideas into practice. It is the force which continually drives them to want to help pre-service teachers find the same force within themselves so as to become more effective teachers. And, certainly given this context, and though the human dimension tends to escape conventional measurement, it becomes easy to see why it is so critical to all of the teaching/learning process.

Highet (1950, p. 31) said that somewhere between the theory and the practice of teaching lies the art of teaching. Barzum

(1945, p. 24) said that teaching is an emotional situation which is developed over a period of time. Buscaglia (1984, p. 155) speaks of the human dimension as being the "loving bridge" between teacher and student, and that to develop this, teachers must first respect themselves and other persons as unique individuals. Ellman (1976, p. 73) says that the human dimension is "reality of individual emotions" including "beauty as well as horror, tragedy as well as joy," and that it is a dimension that tends to be glossed over in American society today. For instance, deaths on the highway are presented as cold statistics which become unreal, and the human emotions and stories that accompany each are masked.

Yet, many would point to the fact that it is this very human dimension to which educators should pay attention if they are to make significant progress in the future of schools. The problems being faced are primarily human ones, and the ability to solve them through interpersonal, collaborative, cooperative, and compromising skills will, to a large extent, dictate the future. (Combs, 1978, 1981, Nash, 1980).

While it is difficult to define the "human dimension" operationally as it relates to teacher education, perhaps experimental examples of its essence would be of value. In 1977, Ream reported that seventy-one percent of practicing teachers who were surveyed declared that they had become teachers in order to work with young people. The same survey showed that over one-third of the surveyed teachers possessed a sense of "mission" to education and that this mission was the reason why they became teachers. Integrated within that framework is a philosophy of life and of education which helps to form a sense of mission. Indeed, Combs (1981) and Nash (1980) speak of this humanistic approach not as a method but rather as a philosophical orientation from which springs the values, beliefs, behaviors, and methods with which teachers treat students and approach education.

What exactly is the human dimension of teacher education? It is that dimension which lies somewhere between the art and the science of teaching (though closer to the art), which in many ways defies both quantification and exact definition and which guides educational missions. It is that which makes caring for others and feeling what they are feeling, and striving to aid them effectively in raising their own levels of meaningful learning and personal development. It is, first and foremost, caring for the humans involved in the process. And in relating such caring to teacher education, it is the collective attempts to develop or at least screen for this quality in future teachers.

The posture here concerning the human dimension in relation to the other aspects of the teacher education process, is that various "dimensions" of methodology and cognition are largely

the concern in teacher education. The question more accurately might read "how does the human dimension 'affect' or 'interrelate' with other aspects" rather than "how does it differ" from them. If the human dimension, then, encompasses that fuzzy area which lies closer to the art as opposed to the science of teaching and if it is described by those foggy descriptors such as "caring", "interpersonal", "loving bridge", "feeling", etc. just how does it relate to the other aspects of teacher education? Furthermore, should the discussion be limited simply to teacher education, or, as a more complete picture, should the entire educational process be considered in terms of the possible influence of the human dimension?

Characteristics of Effective Teaching

While it undoubtedly does relate to other dimensions, the human dimension would seem to be the foundation or the basis from which the methodologies and cognitive information draw meaning. Examining the relationship of all dimensions by means of a thorough study of what really exists is certainly in order.

A review of the literature in the area of humanistic teaching reveals that little has been done in the past two decades. Yet, there are a few classic studies which have been completed. An interesting connection is this: when studies were done which focused on effective teacher behaviors, many of the identifiable behaviors were humanistic in nature. For example, Flanders' research (1954 and 1962) focused on interactional behavior between teacher and student and its relative effectiveness on learning. It was shown that an indirect methodology of teaching was superior to the direct methods. Included in those targeted teacher behaviors were 1) accepting of feelings, 2) praising and encouraging, and 3) accepting of student ideas. In a study by Medley and Mitzel (1958, pp. 86-92) and in one by Medley (1963, pp. 267-73) it was indicated that teachers who expressed "warmth" in a variety of ways were consistently rated as being effective by both students and supervisors and also by the trained observers used in the study.

One of the most comprehensive studies ever completed which dealt with teacher behavior characteristics was completed by Ryans (1960). Ryans found that teachers who reflected understanding, friendliness and responsiveness along with being stimulating and imaginative, were considered more effective teachers than those who were systematic, businesslike, aloof, dull, and routine. More recently, Aspy and Roebuck (1976; 1980, pp. 507-10) showed that teachers who pay attention to student feelings generate greater cognitive learning among students than teachers who do not.

Combs (1978, pp. 558-61) reported that several

independent studies had revealed five teacher perceptions of which good teaching is a product. The perceptions or beliefs given were: 1) emphathetic qualities, 2) positive self-concept, 3) positive beliefs about people, 4) openness and, 5) authenticity. Combs concluded that these perceptions can be acquired by people, but only through exploration of self and of others. Perhaps these are some of the elusive phenomena reported by Highet (1950) and Barzum (1945) when they spoke of the teacher as an artist and of teaching as being a developing emotional situation.

Even in 1977 when Ream reported that seventy-one percent of practicing teachers who were surveyed said they became teachers to work with young people, educators were not listening. They kept moving toward more cognitive and measurable approaches. Thirty-four percent of the same group said they became teachers because they felt a sense of mission to education. Yet, almost no schools of undergraduate teacher education require a single educational philosophy course or more than one educational psychology course.

Callahan and Clark (1983, pp. 357-61) identified personal characteristics of effective teachers. Again it was found that the teachers who are flexible, purposeful, empathetic, experimental, holistic, and diligent are effective teachers. The characteristics cited thus far have been ones that are difficult to measure and difficult to explain. Yet, when put into practice, they seem to separate the effective from the mediocre.

A continuing effort in the form of teacher inservice was founded by Kerman and Martin (1971). Originally called Equal Opportunity in the Classroom the in-service is now called Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement (TESA). An interaction model of some fifteen teacher behaviors has been identified. When used properly and consistently, it has been found to increase reading scores among elementary students and increase math scores. However, that evidence is not as conclusive as the reading results. Discipline problems tend to decrease when the "techniques" are used and students report that they feel better about themselves. Most of the behaviors are humanistically based and include listening, praising (with a reason...) proximity to students, courtesy, touching, personal interest, compliments to students, and being accepting of feelings.

TESA has been operating for over 10 years and results show that it works. It is probably the longest running humanistically based, in-service program to date. The research behind the program is based primarily on humanistic research done by Aspy (1965) Davidson (1960, pp. 107-18), Galloway (1968), Good and Brosphy (1970, pp. 617-24) and Kraft (1975).

Underlying all of the research, however, is the motivating factor that teachers must internalize a concern for the human dimension. Consequently, they will be motivated to seek the best possible ways for their students to grow and to develop in a positive manner.

Past and Contemporary Conditions of Teacher Education

Past conditions of teacher education seem to indicate that little regard has been given to the "human dimension". The teacher was perceived to be a purveyor of knowledge, an answer giver or cultural transmitter. Teachers were trained to be mass producers of rote learning and totalitarians in the classroom (Iannone and Carline, 1971, p. 429). Teachers were not equipped to give emphasis to the development of human potential. Consequently, students became products of stifled curiosity, knowledge, and creative thought. Youth were provided with skills to deal with "things" rather than given opportunity to gain an understanding of themselves and human interaction (Combs, 1981, p. 447).

Combs (1978, p. 560) believes flexibility in course organization and experimental learning within the college curriculum has been avoided in the past. Students assumed little responsibility for personal learning based upon their individual need. Information and activities were sequenced and delivered with the assumption that every student would eventually need them. He also noted that:

> Need-related, problem-solving approaches to teacher education require close and continuous interaction between field experience and substantive study. Historically, field experience was regarded as the place where students practice what they had been taught at the university and was usually reserved for the last term in the program.

Traditionally, students in teacher education programs have been taught by specialists in content areas. It was believed that students would become effective teachers because they retained the concepts taught by each of these experts in their orderly, sequenced courses. (Combs, 1978, p. 561) Humane teaching was probably not modeled within these classes.

Past teacher education programs concentrated upon behavior and the external conditions that produce it. This behavioral orientation regarded the student as an object. One that was to be made, molded, and formed into some preconceived image. The contemporary conditions of teacher education that relate to the human dimension do not appear greatly altered from those in preceding generations. People

that want to work with youth are still attracted to education (Ream, 1977). The traditional sequenced education program remains. Upon closer scrutiny, however, conditions are changing in ways that may both enhance and detract from the human dimension.

Instructional components, such as ones in special education and multi-cultural education, are being added to the teacher education curriculum. Although knowledge and awareness in these areas may inform teachers, there is little assurance that pupils will be dealt with more humanistically (Sadker, 1980).

Another national trend is for states to require students to pass a licensing test for teacher certification. These objective tests do not assess the affective domain. On the other hand, new certification procedures in some states provide for colleges and local schools to develop support teams for new teachers during their initial teaching experiences. These teams can provide the new teacher with assistance for problem confrontation as opposed to new teachers, traditionally, being left on their own to succeed or fail. The key concept here is "support them."

In preparing teachers for existing conditions, information on current classroom practices may perpetuate situations that detract from a positive human dimension. One of these is the use of suspensions as disciplinary action. Fortunately, this is being countered by a growing recognition of students' constitutional rights to attend school and to be educated (Purkey, 1978, p. 10).

Another contemporary education practice that affects the human dimension is labeling and grouping (Purkey, 1978, p. 11). While some categorizing is probably needed, the proliferation of labels is cause for concern because labeling influences teachers' perceptions and can stigmatize students. The self-fulfilling prophecy works as evidenced in Pygmalion in the Classroom. (Rosenthal, 1968) Mainstreaming can be viewed as an approach "being developed in order to avoid the labeling and isolating of students into pejorative environments" (Purkey, 1978, p. 13).

There are notable examples in the current literature that point to renewed interest and effort with the human dimension as it impinges on all aspects of education. One example is a program to teach students how to relate to others and how to handle real-life problems (Crisci, 1981, p. 63). A survey of two thousand high school students listed (1) feelings, (2) self-concept, and (3) mental health most frequently as things they "struggle with most."

Another program involving the human dimension is the Alternative Education Program at Shawnee Mission Unified School District directed to students with problems. It is based on

the "need for a sense of a person's purpose, meaning, relevance, identification satisfaction, and individuality. If these are not taught, the rest of the subject matter becomes meaningless" (Jackard, 1983, p. 20). Charles R. Jackard reported that the Bates Study conducted on the self-concepts of the students in the AEP program "showed a mean 28 percent gain" in self-concept which indicates self-esteem can not only be measured but increased (Jackard, 1983, p. 23).

Dr. Iannone and Dr. Carline (1971, p. 431) of West Virginia University have charged that "many teacher-training institutions are producing humanly illiterate teachers." They have developed a program to humanize teacher education based on four principles:

(1) the opportunity for prospective teachers to progress at different speeds

(2) provision for the learning experience in accordance with the human potential

(3) self-evaluation throughout the teacher preparation program

(4) self-examination with regard to teacher influence on professors, youngsters, and peers

These principles are implemented through blocks of learning experience involving human encounters with self, community youngsters, basic teaching skills and real teaching. In this program the future teacher assumes major responsibility for his own learning with desired outcomes to include enhanced learning and understanding of self.

In addition to these examples of programs directed at improving teachers' and pupils' feelings about self, there are numerous research works that contribute to this topic. A series of research studies by Combs and his associates support the view "that the teacher's perceptions of students, as reflected in the teacher's behavior, have the power to influence how students view themselves and how well they learn in school" (Purkey, 1978, p. 37). The positive teacher perceptions that result in students increasing their positive self-concepts are ones of viewing students as self-directing, able and valuable.

Research on individual effects of attitudes on behavior gives strong indication that the human dimension and not just cognition relates to learning. The affective domain assumes great importance as the catalyst for developing receptive perceivers that not only can learn but do learn (Purkey, 1970).

Combs (1978, p. 558) defines good teaching as "having to do with the teacher's unique use of self and he/she finds

appropriate solutions to carry out the teacher's own and society's purposes." He identified good teaching based on teacher beliefs regarding 1) empathetic qualities, 2) positive self-concept, 3) beliefs about other people, 4) open, facilitating purposes and 5) authenticity. He makes the following four recommendations for significant change in teacher education based on the implications of his research. *First*, for the teacher to use self and to develop a personal system of perceptions while confronting real problems and situations in the classroom. *Second*, for the teacher to help students discover needs and to provide learning experiences designed to help students solve them in an individual way. *Third*, for the teacher to have close and continuous interaction with both field experience and substantive and personal aspects of student growth and (with the) public schools assuming responsibility for field experience and supervision." (Combs, 1978, p. 560) The *fourth* recommendation is that the faculty become more generalists in education and process facilitators in human relations.

The work of Combs and associates involving human relations, established the positive relationship between self-perceptions and school achievement. Previously cited research suggests a positive self-concept can be changed and the change can be measured. Anderson (1981, p. 76) in Assessing Affective Characteristics in the Schools presents a variety of instruments for evaluating affective goals which he states can be made tangible and thus can be assessed. An emphasis on affective goals in the curriculum is no less important than cognitive goals. In this period of extensive testing and measuring, being able to measure affective goals may provide the momentum for increased emphasis on the human dimension.

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CHAPTER IV

SIGNIFICANT CONSIDERATIONS OF THE HUMAN DIMENSION

As the workshop participants set out to study the many facets of the human dimension in teacher education, it was decided that a division of research responsibility would be in order. There proved to be too many interesting and potentially significant issues and questions worthy of study. Two major areas of interest emerged through initial reading, writing, and discussion. The first of these included an emphasis upon past and present research efforts which relate to the human dimension. Workshoppers who chose to assist this group effort examined the human dimension research in classrooms, in society, and in teacher education. The second area selected for study included efforts to discover specific examples of program considerations which address the human dimension. Past experiments were reported, and several of the members of the second group attempted to suggest new ways of including consideration of the human dimension in teacher preparation programs.

Each of the two groups chose to divide their broad areas of examination further. By following this pattern, both depth and breadth could be maintained. Such a pattern of research/study and the reporting which follows does lack in consistency and continuity. While some editorial efforts have been made, the reader is directed to consider each major section of Chapter IV to be a separate production.

IF THE HUMAN DIMENSION IS THE BASE OF THE PYRAMID FOR TEACHER EDUCATION-- WHERE IS THE RESEARCH SUPPORT?

Shirley Haworth
Norris Russell
Bob Taylor
Don Platz
Karla Telfer

The Role of Research in a Maturing Profession

As teacher educators consider the human dimension in teacher education for the twenty-first century, two questions frequently are asked. What happened to the humanistic education thrust of the late sixties? And, in the rush to embrace research-based classroom practice, are teachers and teacher educators ignoring the human dimension of preparation and practice?

The answer to the first question seems to be that results of the humanistic education movement have been examined by society and found wanting. The call for reform has been mumbled from within the profession for a number of years. Society in general now is calling loudly for reform through numerous study commission reports released during 1983. The reasons for the perceived lack of success of the humanistic education movement are many and complex. Competition for world technological supremacy and the attendent struggles for economic stability and military superiority (or at least a tenuous balance of power) calls for bright, knowledgeable young men and women to enter the work force. Ignorance cannot be tolerated. The public understands declining standardized test scores and apparently does not feel the need to analyze the factors contributing to that decline.

In the face of strong criticism, educators have been less than effective in providing enlightenment and leadership to address the problems. Instead, a fortress mentality has been evident with educators taking defensive stances rather than offering cogent analyses and forceful professional

recommendations for change. Perhaps humanistic education fell victim to cultural change and professional immaturity. As Etzioni (1969) pointed out, teaching remains a semi-profession. Maturation to a true teaching profession calls for the development of *defensible* preparation programs for practitioners opportunities for career advancement commensurate with professional status, and clearly defind regulation of and by its members. These things must be accompanied by better defined roles and healthier relationships between and among teachers, administrators, and their professional schools. With maturation of the profession will come the ability to respond more reasonably to cultural and societal changes within our world.

The second question perhaps lies at the heart of the profession's maturation process. Has the human dimension been left out of the research which has contributed to the teaching profession's growing knowledge base? An examination of some key education publications would indicate that it has not. (D. Smith, 1983; Journal of Teacher Education, July-August, 1984; Profile of a Beginning Teacher, 1983; B.O. Smith, 1980) The labels are different, but attention to human need and individuality is present in the research base. Translation into professionally responsible teacher education programs, both pre-service and in-service, must be the next step. There are evidences that the next step is already underway. This time the programming will be different from the 1960's era.

The humanistic education movement of the sixties was based on Third Force psychology and brooked no interference from other theoretical approaches. Joseph C. Vaughn clearly assesses the need for a different approach to teacher education.

> If we are to strive for the status and respect due a profession by holding practitioners accountable for sound practice, then we must also honor the concomitant characteristic of a profession that emphasizes recognition and full consideration of the qualified practioner's perceptions and judgements as a source of feedback and action. The inclusion of both craft and research-derived knowledge, as well as the freedom to exercise informed professional judgment in their application, should be cornerstones of what we espouse for teachers and teacher educators alike. (Vaughn, 1983, p. 4)

It is evident that if educators are to be able to "exercise *informed* professional judgment," they must be aware of the full range of theoretical approaches or schools of thought. To be effective, educators must adapt their teaching efforts to fit individuals with widely desperate needs and abilities in settings

or contexts which vary greatly in conditions and resources. Hence, educators must look for the ways in which the human dimension is addressed *positively* in each of the major schools of thought.

As stated earlier, examination of position statements and research summaries indicates that the human dimension is now being studied in its various aspects. The accumulated research has been conceptualized as including four strands which may be linked to the human dimension: (1) the language of the classroom, (2) teacher planning and decision-making research, (3) the effects of context on teaching, and (4) effective schools research.

In summarizing the research on teacher effectiveness, Vaughn (1984, p. 5) emphasized that teachers and teacher educators must understand and address such issues as "... teacher and student expectations and perceptions, teacher planning and decision making and the social processes which take place in the classroom." These three elements are identical with the human dimension of teaching. In discussing the need for incorporation of this knowledge base into teacher preparation and practice, Vaughn cites the work of no less than nine researchers.

Slavin (1983) and Johnson and Johnson (1975) examined cooperative learning situations and described the instructional milieu which produced positive results as highly interactive, teacher-directed but not necessarily teacher focused.

Thomas Good (1983) summarized the research on teacher effectiveness and discussed the implications for teacher education. He indicated that while much has been learned about effective teaching behavior there is still much to be learned about classroom processes and conditions which facilitate learning. Good also cautions that "Blind application of research findings must be discouraged...? because of the "... complexity of the classroom setting and by the unexamined questions confronting classroom research and practice." Again, the human dimension is evident.

Robert and Ruth Soar state in the opening of their summary of the effects of context on teaching:

> ...good teachers have always known that the same teaching behaviors have different effects on different pupils, and that attaining different objectives requires different styles of teaching. (Soar and Soar, 1983, p. 65)

Clearly these educators are indicating the importance of the human dimension in successful teaching. The research undertaken

by Soar and Soar, Dunkirk and Biddle and others concerning the context of teaching provides teacher educators with additional research which should allow for informed decision making. The task of incorporating the research base into teacher education programs has just begun, however.

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), as a major professional organization in teacher education, published a statement which outlines the knowledge and skills that should be guaranteed by completion of a teacher education program. This position paper, Educating a Profession: Profile of a Beginning Teacher (1983), was released in the hope that constituent institutions of AACTE would examine their program content to insure the incorporation of the elements outlined in the paper, redesigning programs when necessary. The paper is based on the profession's growing recognition that there does exist a knowledge base which is supported by the increased research activity of recent years.

An examination of Profile of a Beginning Teacher reveals that the human dimension is in evidence. For example, in listing the desired competencies and characteristics of beginning teachers, the paper includes items such as:

1. care about children and are committed to their education;

2. are able to communicate effectively with children, policy - and decision-makers, and other persons;

3. honor the dignity and rights of every individual learner consonant with the values of our democratic and pluralistic society;

The AACTE task force responsible for developing the position paper described the four major components of the exemplary teacher education program. In analyzing the components which include general education, preprofessional studies, academic specialization, and professional studies, it becomes evident that the human dimension is threaded through all components.

As noted in the opening paragraphs of this analysis, teaching is in the process of maturing as a profession. A knowledge base supported by research is a prerequisite for this maturation. A concern that the push for research would displace recognition of the importance of the human dimension in teaching and learning has been expressed by some educators. It is this writer's position that the researchers have not lost sight of the human dimension. They have, however,

provided new ways of viewing and analyzing the relationship of the human dimension to the teaching-learning process.

As noted by B. Othanel Smith (1983) and Thomas Good (1983), much remains to be learned about teaching and learning; but educators should feel positive about the growing knowledge base of the profession. Researchers provide the knowledge, but it is of little value without thoughtful, responsible curriculum development for teacher preparation programs and consistent modeling of "good practice" by teacher educators. Herein lies the challenge faced by teacher educators.

Theory Borrowed From Psychology

As the psychologists of the 50's and 60's refined their theories, writers such as Allport, Rogers, and Maslow used the term self-actualization as they developed their concern for the human dimension. They borrowed ideas from an earlier pioneer C.G. Jung, an analyst, who spoke to educators as he emphasized the importance of the single personality striving to reach its highest level. Although each person holds certain similarities with all life and delights in the security of knowing of the likeness with others, one may wish to be unique and different...but not so different that others will condemn or criticize. Here, then are two polar positions--security in sameness and insecurity in difference. A third position lies between the two poles. The task of the educator may be in part to assist the emerging child or the developing adult to evolve from a collective/unconscious state to the more desirable individual/conscious condition.

Teachers who are concerned about the human dimension of education must transcend the call to attend only to the "academic basics." The concerned educator must monitor the inner needs and callings of the individual learner where the student experiences a worthy self and not only trusts but responds to the inner psychic phenomina. As the student feels the strength to become unique and separate, he dares to be a unique self. To quote Jung:

> To the extent that a man is untrue to the law of his own being and does not rise to personality he has failed to realize his life's meaning. Fortunately, in her kindness and patience, Nature never puts the fatal questions as to the meaning of their lives into the mouths of most people. And where no one asks, no one need answer.
> (Jung, 1954, p. 183)

Jung uses the term "vocation" to describe the inner calling that offers direction for one's life. Naturally if the teacher has not listened and responded to a personal call then she/he would not understand these urges within the child. The concept of "vocation" stands as a cornerstone for the teacher educator. Among other things the teacher must be sensitive to meaning in the child's life.

Fordham, a Jungian writer, admonishes parents and teachers to "...accept life and live it as fully as possible." (Fordham, 1959) By being honest with self and accepting the secret, hidden things-the skeletons within the psychic cupboard cause less harm. Children often live out something that the parent and possibly the teacher has repressed. Fordham encourages teachers to live as normally as they can and to extend their knowledge of themselves as far as possible in order to avoid "...projecting their complexes on to the children in their care; otherwise they waste their energy and distort the aims of their more impressionalbe pupils." (Fordham, 1954, p. 112) Because of their influence on future generations teachers must maintain a healthy attitude to life and to themselves. The unconscious expectations become projected as "shoulds." Teacher expectations may force the child into roles and situations that are totally unsuited to the youngster's particular psychological type, causing him much unexplained anxiety and confusion. Jung affirms that:

> No one can train a personality unless he has it himself. And it is not the child, but the adult, who can achieve personality as the fruit of a full life directed to this end. The achievement of personality means nothing less than the optimum development of the whole individual human being. (1954: 171)

In terms of educational development, Jung contributed a greater specificity in understanding the individual unconscious needs of the child that the Freudians stressed so strongly. This specificity is seen in his concept of the Psychological Types.

As to the nature of the psychological types, Jung writes about two basic modes of operation, which are introversion and extraversion. The introvert tends to be inner-directed; he reacts more slowly, and is more inclined to withdraw with ideas that are presented to him. His slowness may penalize him on intelligence test items that involve a timed response. If a school psychologist understood about the nature of introversion, she/he might interpret a profile of low scores on timed items to be an indication of type rather than ability (Wickes, 1927, p. 129).

The extravert is outer-directed; he responds more quickly and adapts to change more easily. He is more socially inclined and quick to be influenced by the ideas of others. Green (Green, 1923, p. 208) sees the educational problem in the case of both is to bring directed thinking to bear on these tendencies. "The extravert has to learn to think in connection with his actions, the introvert to direct his thoughts to real and useful ends."

Underlying the two basic types of introversion and extraversion, the individual displays a dominant function that greatly influences the way he patterns his life and perceives his world. Jung describes the four functions as being thinking, feeling, sensation, and intuition. The combination of type and function aids in understanding a child's unique tendencies and capabilities and the sensitive teacher must recognize these differences; each child, depending upon type will learn and respond differently.

Recent Related Research

Where is the Human Dimension in Teacher Education? Results of a recent Gallup Poll indicate that twenty-seven percent of those surveyed referred to discipline as the number one woe of American public schools, followed by drugs (eighteen percent), and poor curriculum and standards (fifteen percent). While fourteen percent listed "getting good teachers" as the most crucial public school issue, only four percent felt that teacher salaries were too low. Also, while the number of people giving schools a grade of "A" or "B" was up over recent years, fifty-eight percent still would rank the schools at a "C" level or below. (Connell, 1984, p. 1)

Other terms that are typically bantered about in reference to the state of the public schools might include back to basics, the three R's, programmed instruction, competency testing, declining achievement test scores, time on task, merit pay, Nation at Risk, and on, and on, and on. What these issues seem to reflect is that the human is no longer the central focus within the classroom.

In the face of the lack of confidence with our schools, the response seemingly has been to become achievement oriented to the point that teacher success is directly related to advanced placement test scores. Perhaps the most salient question is, where then, does the human dimension fit? And, after the humanist educational push of the late 1960's and early 1970's, what is the research and/or support for the human dimension within schools, and, more specifically, within teacher education programs? Is concern for the person not compatible with an achivement oriented philosophy?

In the position papers at the beginning of this volume, the relationships between the human dimension and other dimensions of the learning process were discussed. One popular feeling seemed to be that these "dimensions" are not separate, neither are they clearly distinguishable. Rather than being discussed

from the frame of reference of their differences, it is more appropriate to discuss a model in which all dimensions overlap and impinge upon each other. Within this model, the human dimension is seen to be the center of the pyramid or the very foundation upon which the other dimensions of learning draw meaning.

To explore this concept more fully, one need only return to the literature on "effective teaching" to discover that the characteristics which effective teachers share are not technical skills, nor are they cognitive information. Rather, the common characteristics overwhelmingly could be called "human" qualities. Terms such as "warmth," "empathy," "positive self-concept," "openness," "responsiveness", not "efficiency," "systematic," "businesslike," and "dull" are used to describe effective teachers (Medley and Mitzel, 1958, pp. 86-92, Aspy and Roebuck, 1980, pp. 507-10; and Combs, 1978, p. 558). Indeed, Heath (1982, p. 35-6) in discussing these factors maintains that:

> ...the successful teacher is one for whom teaching is a calling. He or she has worked out an educational philosophy, is committed to liberal education, and is able to articulate this commitment through understanding how healthy growth proceeds and by consistently flexibly using specific teaching competencies that reflect those educational principles now known to contribute to more enduring maturing effects in students.
>
> The successful teacher is mature and can therefore balance more readily the demands of classroom and school with his or her own needs for fulfillment. Such maturity and adaptability enable the teacher to continue to grow as a human being through commitment to the growth of others.

The liberalizing education to which Heath refers, is one which values self-educating, compassionate and cooperative students. And, when teacher "success" hinges mainly upon achievement test scores, one quickly sees that this is a most shallow position and does not even begin to get to the roots of the educational process. In contrast, the qualities which researchers have been able to relate to successful "enduring" teaching all relate to the human dimension. Based on these telling results, is there evidence that programs of teacher education are attempting to infuse the human dimension into preservice preparation curricula? A further question is, what research is being completed to establish or to refute the human dimension as a salient quality in the teaching/learning process?

The Evidence

Unfortunately, a review of the literature available in the summer of 1984 revealed that very little is currently being done to infuse and/or undergird processes of humanizing skills in the training of teachers. An earlier 1978 survey revealed that only four percent of the responding programs could be identified as humanistic in nature. This would range from those based purely on humanistic philosophy, to those attempting in large scale to develop human dimension skills at the preservice level (Simmons, 1978, p. 113). A natural hypothesis, then, would be that teacher education programs are attempting to inject much cognitive information and pedagogical skills into the prospective teachers without attempting, at least consciously, to develop competency within the human dimension.

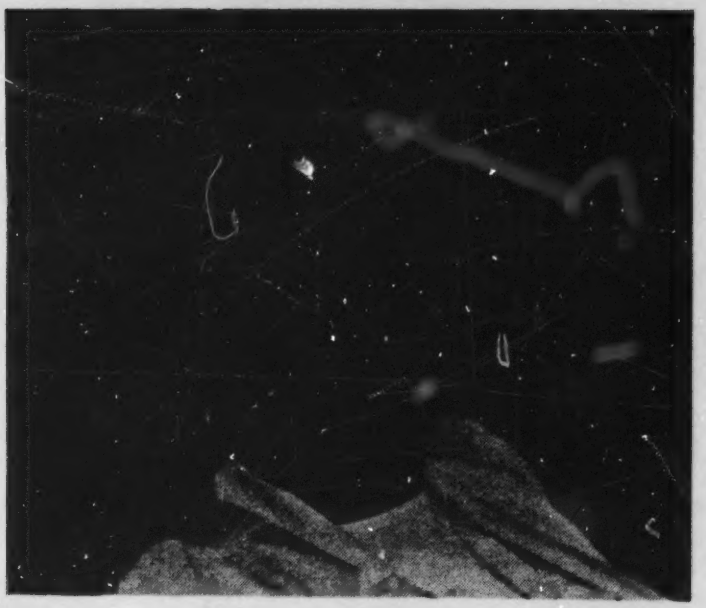
Perhaps the most pervasive attempt at requiring a sensitivity to human being has been provided through the multi-cultural educational movement. However Mahan and Boyle (1981, p. 103) report that, while there is major support for multicultural education by teacher educators, much of this is merely rhetoric. Their survey, in fact, raised many questions related to "commitment and implementation" of these programs. This is reprehensible because the teacher of the future must be prepared to react to and educate a "highly mobile, multiethnic student population."

Another bit of inferential evidence about the thrust of teacher preparation is reported by Sirotnik (1983, p. 16). In surveying over 1000 classrooms, data revealed a preponderance of "old methodology" (teacher lecturing and student working on written assignments); this suggests the "linear thinking, social apthy, passivity, and a whole host of outcomes contrary to true meaning of schools." Thinking, feeling, curious students are not being developed, and this reflects both the mediocrity and inappropriate hidden curriculum within the classrooms of the nation. (Sirotnick, 1983, p. 28)

With such apparent lack of research support and evidence that the human dimension is being successfully infused in teacher education programs, a look at research which is related to aspects that can be termed "the human dimension" is in order. Because evidence is lacking in teacher education programs, much of the work focuses on the students within the schools. Inferences of appropriateness, then, for professional preparation programs can be made.

Interpersonal and Empathetic Skills!

In reviewing the literature relating the interpersonal and empathetic skills of teachers to positive student outcomes,



several authors have produced impressive results. Hefele (1971, p. 52) in reviewing the literature found that higher levels of empathy on the part of the teacher reflected higher levels of commitment to the student's reaching his/her full potential. The more this respect was communicated to the student, the better they learned. These findings are echoed by Gazda (1971, p. 47), Berenson (1971, pp. 70-1), and Aspy (1975, p. 6). In fact, Aspy reports that not only was empathy on the part of the teacher related to increase' cognitive development and reading scores by students, but this training actually reduced absenteeism in one school.

There is much evidence to support the contention that these skills can be taught to inservice and preservice teachers and applied to the classroom. Hinz and Saba (1977, pp. 69-70), after a two phase training program were able to increase the perceiving, responding, questioning, and interaction skills of the vast majority of teacher education students with whom they worked. The teacher education students also reacted very favorably to the training. Carrying this research one step further, Hawn (1977, pp. 28-9) discovered that twenty-one months after training, the preservice and inservice teachers were still significantly better in these skills when compared to where they were prior to training.

Berenson (1971, p. 83) and Hefele (1971, pp. 67-8) both studied the effects of human relations training on the classroom performance of elementary school teachers. In both studies, the experimental groups rated significantly higher than control groups on communication and interpersonal functioning skills. Also, the experimental groups were subsequently rated higher by their respective supervisors, and they also proved to be better at motivating and classroom management skills. As a result;

> The interpersonal process training was found to have had a significant impact on the ability of teacher trainee both to recognize and implement those aspects of good teaching which are defined by high levels of interpersonal variables. (Hefele, 1979 , p. 66)

Student achievement was also shown to increase.

Researchers have studied the effects that increased interpersonal skills have upon students. After training in how to respond empathetically, teachers were able to cause specified negative student behavior to significantly decrease. Once the negative behaviors were identified and charted for one week, the teachers endeavored to have at least one "empathetic exchange" with each child per day for two weeks. At the end of the third week, the negative behavior was reduced by approximately 67%. No other treatment was applied, and teachers overwhelmingly reported better understanding and communication with

the targeted student (Harbach and Asbury, 1976, p. 24; and Asbury, 1984, p. 187).

In applying these findings to training teachers, one concept is apparently critical. During human relations skills training, approximately fifty percent of the students, when given a pupil statement and two teacher choices, were able to acertain the appropriate response. It was, therefore, suggested by the researchers that it is necessary to train for formulation rather than discrimination (Ayers, Rohr, and Bilbrey, 1980, p. 351; and Aspy, 1975, p. 8).

Self-Concept Development

As was the case with student achievement, evidence indicates that student self-concept may be enhanced by application of appropriate human relations techniques. However, self-concept development is a complex issue. It is intricately related to achievement in a way that, as a student has more success, self-concept is enhanced and the student will then have more success. (Gazda, 1971, p. 47). Evidence suggests that a sensitive teacher is the essential ingredient in positive self-concept development, and that students with higher self-concepts are more persistent, more able to assume responsibility, and that they need fewer breaks during a learning task (Griggs and Price, 1981, p. 604; and Hall and Runion, 1983, p. 61).

Teacher Expectations and Behavior

Dobson and Campbell (1979, pp. 30-1) have related the philosophical orientation of human nature and the teacher's perception and response to student behavior. Those teachers with the lowest regard for human nature tended to overreact to student misbehavior and chose the least appropriate responses to that behavior. Conversely, teachers with the highest regard for human nature responded more moderately and appropriately.

Much rhetoric has been offered relating student behavior to achievement, and development to teacher expectations and teacher behavior. Washington (1979, p. 209) in a review of the literature suggests that the teacher is the most "significant other" in children's lives. The expectation and attitudes of the teacher are communicated through his/her behavior. Washington reported that research indicates significant expectation and attitudinal differences on the part of the teacher can be related to sex differences, social class, achievement differences, and classroom organization differences. This literature review also indicates that the teacher is the most critical element of the classroom atmosphere, and those teachers who are supportive and accepting of student ideas have better results. Washington concludes by saying, "The classroom should be viewed as a human relations center because

teaching effectiveness is enhanced by the quality of the interaction and atmosphere there." (p. 211)

Summary

While there is little if any direct research supporting the inclusion of the human dimension into the teacher education program, there is an abundance of research related to student outcomes. Applying the principle that the human dimension is the foundation from which the other learning dimensions draw meaning, it is clear that this research should affect teacher education. If the teacher is to cause meaningful, enduring growth of the student, he/she must be well grounded in human skills. It is only as the teacher is able to care for and "enter that person's frame of reference and communicate to that person what he or she is experiencing" (Aspy, 1975, p. 4) that appropriate responses to human needs can be made. Only as these needs are met can self-concept, achievement, cognitive growth, and many other positive benefits of education be realized. After surveying the works of experts in the field, Strein and French (1984, 339-46) offer key skills, concepts, and attitudes that are necessary to foster affective growth within students. Affective growth, therefore, may be achieved, but only as it is researched. The principles must be applied systematically within the schools; the teacher education program is the place to begin. As teacher educators, it is extremely important to remember that as educational fads come and go, the problems and challenges are always essentially human ones.

Needs As Perceived by First Year Teachers

A review of the literature might provide support for the notion that teacher training programs need to give attention to the human dimension. More specifically, a review of the attitudes and perceptions of beginning teaching experiences may suggest that schools of pedagogy have not prepared beginning teachers with a knowledge of how to present content from a human perspective. The scope of this section will seek to identify what beginning teachers (including student teachers) have to say about their needs or lack of needs relative to the human dimension.

The difficulty in reviewing the literature on attitudes and perceptions of beginning teachers lies in the fact that the human dimension is usually not mentioned directly. For this reason, one needs to look at strands or components of the dimension when reviewing studies and reports. It is from this premise that comments and conclusions will be developed.

In reviewing the literature, a few studies and reports were discovered relating to both the beginning teacher and attitudes toward strands of the human dimension. Meeting the total needs of the individual student is a strand that has received attention. A number of studies and reports (Aspy,

1967; Grandgenett, 1978; Kowalski, 1981, 1982; Weaver, 1983) suggest that student teachers and beginning teachers lack confidence in their abilities to meet the wide range of needs of their students in beginning teaching experiences. Aspy, reporting on a study by Bennie (Aspy, 1967, page 305) indicated that fifty percent of the 171 first year teachers canvassed voiced problems in meeting the total needs of their students. Only seventeen percent, however, voiced problems with respect to subject matter knowledge. In Grandgenett's study of inservice needs of beginning teachers and experienced teachers, greatest needs were in the cluster of developing pupil self-concept, classroom problems, and individual attention. In the Reports of Kowalski and Weaver at Ball State University, responses of first year teachers under the category of areas in which more help would have been welcomed, indicated that the Wide Range of Students Needs was the area in which the most help was welcomed. Interesting, also, was the fact that knowledge of teaching methods and basic skills were identified as minimal or no concern.

The studies reported by Aspy and Kowalski and Weaver have brought forth an interesting insight. Today the media, the public as well as critics in general of higher education point to the concerns over lack of basic skills and subject knowledge. Yet, beginning teachers from these studies felt that these are not areas of concern as much as the need to better understand how to work with the wide range of student needs.

In a study of twenty-eight student teaches, Gallemore (1981) discovered another perception from preservice students relating to the need for the human dimension. She found that students entering their student teaching experience gave merit to the total needs of students but at exiting the experience, indicated that this area was the one achieved the least. Another point of interest was that while the entering students and university faculty gave merit to the total needs of the students, this was less of a priority for the cooperating teachers.

From Gallemore's study, we might entertain two thoughts concerning the human dimension and teacher training programs. First, how do we assist student teachers in continuing to give merit to strands of the human dimension when classroom teachers may not give it equal priority? Second, how can we assist the student teacher not only in giving merit to the human dimension, but also help them to achieve success in achieving this end in teaching.

A final study to be reported was done by Copenhaver, McIntyre, and Williams (1981); it suggested further implications for teacher training relating to Gallemore's report. The trio of researchers asked twenty-seven preservice teachers to assess a total of fifty classroom characteristics. The students assessed the fifty items in both pre-student

teaching and post-student teaching situations. The results indicated that elementary level student teachers considered pupil needs and individual characterisitcs more frequently prior to the student teaching experience. Secondary student teachers, though they considered pupil needs and individual characteristics less than the elementary teachers prior to student teaching, considered these human strands more at the completion of the teaching experience.

Again, two areas of speculation may result from this study. First, elementary teachers may give less consideration to pupil needs after completing their experience because of the classroom situation which calls for a wide range of teaching activities, including the teaching of multiple sugjects. A second speculation might be that secondary student teachers may feel a need to explore pupil characteristics more because of their limited background training in teacher methodology.

In reviewing the studies and reports on beginning teachers (including student teachers) we have several premises to work from with respect to the human dimension in teacher education. *First,* teacher training programs may need to expand their research to look at the human dimension as a whole to better understand the perceptions and attitudes exiting students have concerning this dimension in teaching. *Second,* it appears to be important for schools of pedagogy to identify strategies which would prevent exiting students from lessening their consideration for human dimension strands once their beginning teaching experiences commence. *Lastly,* teacher education programs may need to look at inservice programs to maintain the initial attitudes and perceptions of young teachers with regard to the human dimension. Perhaps Robert Blume supports this last premise best:

> There is no single method of teaching which can be demonstrated to be superior for all teachers. Nor will knowledge about good teaching insure superior performance. These findings from research over the last 10 years have thrown teacher education into a dilemma. If not knowledge and methods, what shall we have our prospective leaders learn in college. (Blume: 1971, page 8)

Hopefully, the merits of the human dimension will be identified as needed and can find ways to become a partner with other components of teacher training.

Standardized Tests: How Do They Relate To The Human Dimension

Standardized tests of achievement are used widely in school systems across the United States. Unfortunately a great deal of importance is afforded to these relatively few scores, and conclusions are drawn based upon limited data. With computer assisted data collection, much broader use can be made of test instruments in our schools. Teachers of the future must be knowledgeable about testing in order to use this dimension to create a more, not less, human learning environment.

One score from a standardized achievement test does not show how much progress a student has made in a school year. The public and many educators assume that "good students" in a "good school" will reach the same high level of achievement at the same time. Individual differences, backgrounds, and life circumstances are ignored.

What about all those areas, all those objectives, that are neglected by the standardized achievement tests? Students in education might find Tests in Print III and The Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook, to be guides to instruments to use in their classrooms. Specimen tests can often be obtained at little charge from publishers. Tests in Print III is a publication (1983) that gives "descriptive listings and references without reviews of commercially published tests that are in print and are available for purchase or use." A directory of publishers is included. The Mental Measurement Yearbooks are not as current but do include critical reviews of commercially published tests in English. (Mitchell, 1983, pp. xxiii-xxv)

Measuring Self-Concept

Some available tests one might use are "Self-Concept as a Learner Scale" which deals with motivation, task orientation, and problem solving; it is meant for students age 9 and over. "Self-Esteem Questionnaire" is available. "The Personal Orientation Inventory" is intended for grades 9-16 and adults; components of the test are aimed at inner directedness, self-actualizing value, spontaneity, self-acceptance. "Firo-Awareness Scales" for grades 4 through 16 and "Myers-Briggs Type Indicator" for grades 9-16 and adults come under the category of self-concept.

"Peer Attitudes Toward the Handicapped Scale" for grades 4 through 8 and the "School Attitude Survey" for grades 3 through 6 consider attitudes related to the school setting.

An interesting but not new test is the "Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal" designed for grades 9 through 16.

The review states, "this instrument could provide an excellent measure for those who claim that their instruction results in the ability to think rather than simply the acquisition of subject matter (Buros, 1972, p. 783).

There are other important issues covered in the classrooms. Success in teaching study habits can be evaluated in "Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes" for grades 7-12. World events and global sensitivity are important. Several tests are available including "Time Current Affairs Test" for grades 9-12 and adults. Do students have different needs to be effective learners? The "Productivity Environmental Preference Survey" gives some indication of the different needs which students must have to be effective.

The value of multiple testing is to gather data that supports all of the objectives of a classroom, to clarify for oneself what learning is taking place, and to demonstrate especially to those who are evaluators that learning is taking place in the classroom.

Teachers need to consider whether there is any way to decrease the pressures upon their students during testing? Must rigid time limits be equally imposed on all learners? Is it possible for teachers to be present and to answer questions--test related and personal--during testing? How much encouragement can be given? Through discussion, can students become better informed on testing procedures, skills of test taking, and test survival? After testing do students and parents receive clear explanations of the purposes of the test and how improvement or adjustment can be made? Is self-esteem protected through privacy of test results? Is positive self-concept encouraged by teacher attitude toward test results, i.e. has the teacher himself learned to accept and demonstrate through is actions and attitude that varying levels of achievement express differences, rather than absolute rank and that effort and progress are valued? Is it clear to all involved that the student is more important than a test score?

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper is to encourage prospective teacher education students to create a humane learning environment. Not everyone will applaud the efforts, but we encourage them and believe strongly in the need for a truly human dimension in the 21st Century.

Importance of Affective Characteristics For Learning

Benjamin S. Bloom (yes, one and the same of Bloom's Taxonomy of Education Objectives) supports a concern for dealing with affective areas in order to bring about optimal learning. "Success breeds success" may be true, but what seems to be a more accurate statement is; the fact that one has been successful brings about a positive attitude toward the next task and one's positive attitude does influence cognitive achievement.

Bloom's book Human Characteristics and School Learning cites convincing research in support of the following excerpts. Bloom addresses how a student perceives success and how success relates to self-concept and cognitive achievement.

> The perception of what constitutes success is determined by the individual against the background of evidence he has received from the tasks (which he believes to be similar or related), and from the people who are connected with this task or similar tasks--teachers, parents, peers. If an individual believes he has done a number of prior related tasks successfully, he is likely to approach the next learning task with some degree of positive affect. If he believes he has been unsuccessful with such prior tasks, he is likely to approach the next learning task with some degree of negative affect. (Bloom, 1982, p. 78)

> Without belaboring the point too much further, we are maintaining that the student's perception of success or failure in school learning tasks and related approval or disapproval of teachers, parents, and even peers when consistent over some long period of time should result in favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward school and school learning which become generalized and apply to each new learning task, the school, and the teachers and other students in it. If the perception of failure in school is clear and consistent, the student must move from negative attitudes which involve a good deal of affect to apathy when he finds there is no escape from the school and its learning tasks. (Bloom, 1982, p. 88)

> ...a schedule of success and approval or failure and disapproval over a number of years will lead to the student's generalizing about himself as a learner or student. Eventually, he must shift from blame directed to the school or the teachers for his lack of success in school to blame directed toward the self. Or, he will shift from approval of the self...the student who has consistently failed (and is reminded of this by his teachers and parents) must come to view himself with a generally negative self-concept as a learner. (Bloom, 1982, pp. 92-93)

> ...we have estimated that affective entry characteristics can account for up to one-fourth (r=+.50) of the variance on relevant cognitive achievement measures.

What then can a teacher do about students who have been unsuccessful in school? How can the cycle be broken? Bloom addresses the alterability of affect.

> While affective entry characteristics are likely to become resistant to change after the individual has accumulated a long history of experiences with particular types of learning tasks, there must be a variety of means which may be effective in increasing the effort a student will devote to a particular new learning task. ...One means for doing this is to improve the quality of instruction so that a larger proportion of the students attain some sense of accomplishment of mastery. Still another method is to both help the student and reward him in such a way that he gains satisfaction from the task and his achievement in it. Put slightly differently, teaching, curriculum, and grading policies in the school which stress high ratios of success experiences to failure experiences should result in increased amounts of positive affective entry characteristics for subsequent related learning tasks. (Bloom, 1982, p. 105)

Bloom then summarized the need for attention to affective characteristics.

Who Can Learn?

Affective entry characteristics are effective in determining subsequent learning. Individuals can learn in spite of relatively negative affective entry characteristics and individuals with very positive affective entry characteristics may fail to learn if they lack the essential cognitive entry behaviors.

As we view it, positive affective characteristics, when combined with appropriate cognitive entry behaviors, enable the individual to learn with less than optimal qualities of instruction. Negative entry characteristics pose difficult problems for learning, which, in part, may be overcome by very good qualities of instruction which are especially sensitive to the individual's needs and difficulties.

cognitive behaviors and affective characteristics under most school conditions suggests that instruction must take these into consideration in determining what is necessary to develop both high cognitive learning outcomes as well as more positive affective characteristics. Favorable school conditions can enable most students to learn well and to get satisfaction from their learning. (Bloom, 1982, p. 106)

It seems that Bloom has said a great deal and said it very well.

HUMANISTIC TEACHER EDUCATION: WHAT OUGHT TO BE

Dorothy Trusock
Jimmie Russell
Teresa Martin
Mary Horst
Coovie Datondji
Ted Bitner
Helen Rogers

War has been declared! Where? Our nation's public schools have become the new battleground. For the past ten years, both the popular press and scholarly publications have bombarded the public with articles focusing on the problems in our school systems. At the local, state, and national levels, headlines have blared with such topics as: battered teachers, assaults on teachers, teacher burn-out, and drugs and violence in the schools (Gallup, 1980). Our public schools are portrayed as frightening and dangerous places to be. Gone is the day when teaching was revered as a "safe" profession, and the school marm an honored member of the community.

While the physical climate of our schools is being portrayed as a field of guerrilla warfare, the intellectual climate is fairing little better. Nationally, students's test scores continue to decline. Headlines blast out that Johnny still can't read and Johnny still can't write. Hall (1977, p. 207) noted that:

> Somehow in the United States, we have managed to transform one of the most rewarding of all human activities into a painful, boring, dull, fragmenting, mind-shrinking, soul-shriveling experience.

Likewise, Gunnison and Ladd (1978, p. 23) lament that "schools are the most powerful bureaucracies that have successfully molded masses of youth into robot-like, mindless consumers." The schools are depicted as vast academic wastelands.

If the schools are so treacherous and such intellectual voids, why do so many young people continue to choose teacher education as a profession? The answer lies in the fact that these extremes are not totally accurate, and not all schools are as bad as the press portrays. Educators, however, do not deny that our schools have problems and as Gunnison and Ladd (1978, p. 23) point out, "if schools are to change, then the way to change lies in the teachers, and it is teacher education that needs the revamping." Teacher educators can begin this

reform process by improving their procedures for selecting future teachers. More stringent criteria are needed, and if teaching is a human enterprise, the selection process must be more holistic. Educators must consider the whole person: intellectual, physical, and emotional.

Selection and Retention

A survey of criteria used for selection of students in Teacher Education (Haberman, 1972; Carpenter, 1973; Watts, 1980; Simmons, 1982; Lamen et.al., 1982) indicates the procedures are fairly uniform and more quantitative than qualitative. Heading the list of criteria is grade point average (GPA) which ranges from 2. to 2.5 on a 4. scale. This is followed by a variety of other items: personal interview; formal application; recommendations from faculty members; physical exams; speech and hearing tests; English compositon grade (usually C or better); and standardized tests, usually, a minimum score on the ACT or SAT. In the most recent survey, Lamen et.al. (1982, p. 7) found that about six and a half percent of the institutions responding used psychological tests although no specific tests were given. There is considerable concern among educators regarding the criteria for selection. Lamen et.al. (1982, p. 6) observed that "all to often...objective quantitative selection criteria are used heavily, or even exclusively." Educators are reluctant to look at the human dimension in their selection process because it is a more subjective criterion, not easily quantified.

Haberman (1974, p. 235) said that:

> grades, English and speech proficiences and academic references are inexpensive, efficient ways of screening large numbers of students. These criteria merely predict students' future success as students and do not predict teaching success...

Teachers need a knowledge base, but setting the criterion for this more rigidly, or raising the GPA, is not sufficient. Good teachers must be able to get their students excited about learning; they must have the energy and vitality to create enthusiasm in the classroom. As Grace Muente (Fall, 1974, p. 237) put it: "a student teacher, like any good regular teacher must have a certain amount of charisma." In the process of selecting future teachers, members of the Teacher Education profession must find a way of assessing these "charismatic" qualities to insure better teachers.

Deciding what qualities to look for to be sure that prospective teachers have "charisma" is not an easy task. A good starting point, however, was presented by Maples (1979,

pp. 108-109). She polled groups of students in humanistic education classes and compiled a list of qualities which the students perceived from their own experiences and from research and reading.

A humanistic educator should be

Sensitive. Possess a heightened awareness of the moods and feelings of students, with an understanding of how those moods and feelings add to or detract from the success of each class meeting;

Empathic. Be aware of the constraints and pressures with which students must contend today. Appreciate the needs of new populations: reentry women, students working full-time, and fathers and mothers with baby-sitting concerns;

Loving. Be able to show a warm and respectful caring for both teaching and those being taught;

Fair and flexible. Be fair in dealing with the needs of each student and reasonably flexible when making assignments by allowing for certain human emergencies without diluting the accountability necessary for optimum student outcomes;

Assured. Be reasonably confident of his or her ability to facilitate learning in students;

Conscientious. Be constantly striving to become better at the teaching role, seeking input from many potential evaluative sources, and giving considerable credibility to student evaluation;

Tolerant. Be accepting of all views--be nonjudgmental when student opinions may differ, and avoid the use of attitudes like sarcasm to deal with student attitudes;

Understanding. Be able to recognize that conflicts occasionally occur in a student's life that may temporarily interfere with smooth academic progress;

Altruistic. Be concerned with human welfare of the whole person in the education process from an operational rather than a theoretical base;

Lively. Be energetic, healthy, and aware of the personal idiosyncrasies that make a class enjoyable or that may detract from that enjoyment;

Imaginative. Use a variety of teaching methods to present subject matter in such a way as to hold student interest;

Zealous. Be convinced that humanistic education is alive and well, and possess the ability to instill that humanistic zeal in students;

Enthusiastic. Be able to communicate to students a sincere belief in the subject matter of humanistic education and a desire to share that enthusiasm with others;

Durable. Be able to survive after having achieved all the qualities listed.

Although this is not an exhaustive list, it represents some of the most important characteristics which good teachers demonstrate. Teacher education selection committees can add to this list other qualities which they deem important to assess during the selection process.

After listing and defining these human dimension qualities, the next step is finding methods of assessment. Educators are "test oriented" people; therefore, many selection committees will be more comfortable using standardized tests. There are, however, other ways of assessing interpersonal relationship skills which can be used in the selection process. These procedures will require the committees to do two things: agree on a set of qualities to look for (Maples previously mentioned lists could be used) and agree to make a judgment based on the technique(s) for assessment which the committee selects. There are a variety of creative techniques which could be used.

The Portfolio

This is a "sell yourself" technique similar to that used by artists, designers, actors, and actresses. The prospective teacher would be requested to present a portfolio of himself to the selection committee. This could contain the following items: pictures of himself alone and with groups of people important to him/her and in settings important to him/her; copies of papers from college and high school classes; copies of art work such as paintings, drawings or crafts of any type, or poems, stories, or essays which the student has written; copies of favorite cartoons; copies of poems, stories, or essays written by others which are favorites of the student; copies of adages or sayings which are meaningful to the student; a favorite painting or piece of sculpture; a sheet with his/her favorite colors on it; a statement about a hobby and/or a favorite sport; a review of a

special book; an essay about a place he/she has visited or an event he/she has attended which is very important. All of these, and others which the selection committee could add, would give the teacher educators a good portrait of the student. It would help them assess the students self-concept which was defined by Stanford and Roark (1974, p. 21) as consisting of "all we perceive ourselves to be." The future teacher with a positive self-concept, which is an important factor in affecting behavior, will be a more vital force in the classroom.

The Collage

The collage technique is a more compact version of the portfolio. The future student teacher would be asked to present a self-portrait on a piece of poster board with words and pictures which represent those things which are most meaningful to him/her. Any or all of the items listed in the portfolio section could be included. Instead of just a visual collage, the prospective student teacher could be asked to present an audio/visual collage, again using the same list of suggestions in the portfolio. To this could, also, be added the inclusion of a video tape or a slide tape of his/her working with young people of the same or similar age level which they want to teach. Many young people work in nursery schools, as teacher aides, in Sunday schools or with YMCA youth groups, Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts; they could video tape a session to present to the Teacher Education Selection Committee. If he/she has not had any of these experiences, a video tape of their preprofessional experiences could be presented. This would be an excellent method for the committee members and the candidate to assess the future teacher's interpersonal skills in action.

The Interview

About forty percent of the Teacher Education institutions surveyed by Lamen et.al. (1982, p. 7) indicated that they used the interview technique whereby the selection committee sits down with the candidates and asks them a series of questions to discern readiness and/or potential for the teaching profession. Typical questions might be as follows:

1. Why do you want to teach?

2. Why do you want to teach primary grades? Middle school science? or high school English?

3. What experiences have you had with elementary school children? Middle school children? or high school children?

4. Are you concerned about the drug problem in the schools? Or, what would you do if you know a student is on drugs?

5. What would you do to establish good discipline?

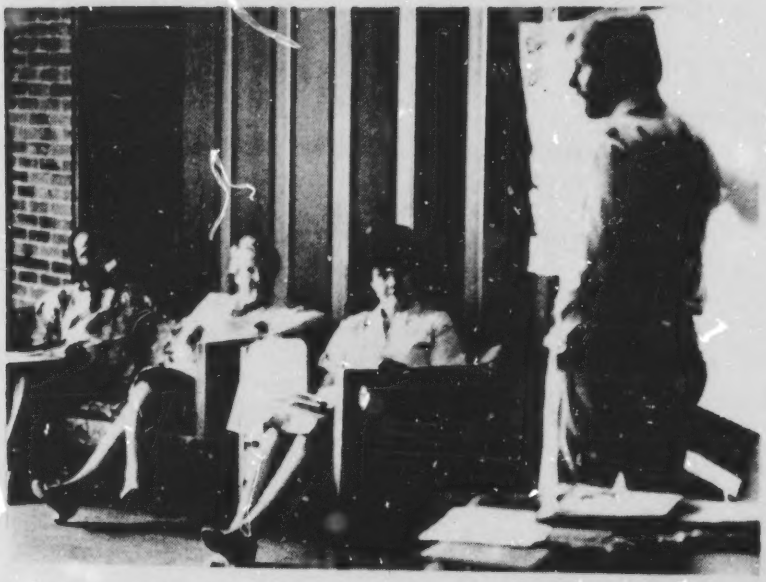
These and other routine types of questions are the standard fare of interviews. Additional questions might be geared to individual candidates. For example, if the student has had an unusually high absentee rate in college classes, he/she might be asked to explain this problem, recognizing that attendance on the job is an important factor. Teacher educators on selection committees might further consider a set of interactive interview questions developed by Lovely Billups (1984):

INTERACTIVE INTERVIEWS:

An Activity Designed to Enhance
Interpersonal Understanding Among
Peoples of Diverse Cultural Background

1. What is your name?
2. Are there any statistics related to yourself that you would care to share?
3. Who comprises your family?
4. From where did your family originate?
5. Are you affiliated with a religious group?
   Yes_____No_____Comments:
6. Do you have any customs or practices that specifically relate to your religious or cultural affiliation?
   Foods?
   Holidays?
   Taboos?
7. What are some things that you enjoy most?
8. What are thirgs that you dislike?
9. Do you speak second or third language(s)? Name them.
10. If I wanted to speak your language, what would you suggest as 10 words or phrases I should learn first?
11. Tell me one thing that you think you know that I don't know.
12. What do you want to do with your life?

This open-ended style of questioning will help give the committee



members a better view of the whole-person, enabling them to perceive the candidates self-concept. Thus, the selection committee will be better able to judge the prospective teachers potential as a future member of the profession.

Standardized Tests

For those educators who prefer the standardized test to measure interpersonal skills, there are two which are readily available: The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. These two examinations are available in the testing centers or through Guidance and Counseling units at most colleges and universities across the country. Research studies have shown two other tests available which have proved successful in assessing interpersonal skills of practicing and prospective teachers. One is Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Inventory (Henjum, 1966, pp. 45-48). This measures intelligence (abstract thinking) as well as fifteen other items which include emotional stability, imagination, and critical thinking. The Carkhuff Scale for Empathetic Understanding (Gazda et al, 1973; Hawn, 1979, p. 28) is a more complicated instrument which involves presenting the examinee with a situation, which a teacher might encounter, and having him/her select an appropriate response. The response is, then, measured on a scale to determine the degree of empathy the responder has toward the situation. Unlike the other tests mentioned, this one examines only one quality, empathy. Usage of any of these measurement devices would give the selection committee a better overall picture of the candidate as a person.

When the committee has completed this assessment of the candidate, members will have information for advisement purposes. At this time, the prospective teachers may decide that it is not the profession desired and select themselves out. Or, they can work with the help of their teacher education professors, and advisor, to retrain and retool, thereby gain needed interpersonal skills. It will be invaluable data for retention in teacher education.

Selection to the teacher education program is the first and most important step; yet it has typically been done quantitatively and haphazardly. Watts (1980, p. 125) said:

> The need for substantial improvement of admission standards to teacher preparatory programs is indisputable. Either we take action to insure that capable people are being selected for teaching careers or we imply that education or our youth is really unimportant after all.

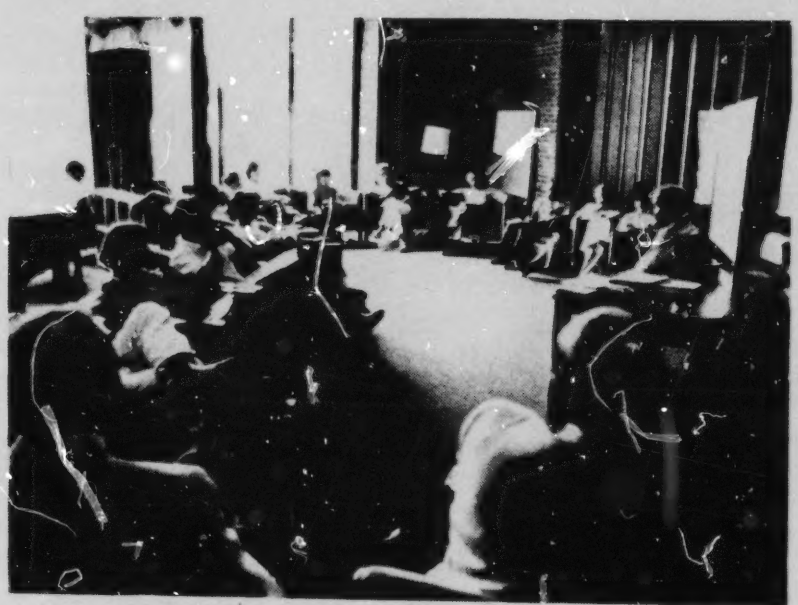
One area of this selection process which has been almost ignored

is the human dimension. If we care about our youth, we must care about the people who make an indelible mark on them, their teachers. The profession must insure that those who enter have a sound knowledge base, good instructional skills, but most of all, are warm and caring human beings.

Present Practices and Criteria Used at Selected Colleges and Universities to Select Teacher Education Students

During the past five years, there has been some efforts to strengthen the curricula and the entrance requirements for teacher education programs, according to a study of the National Center for Education Statistics. (NCES) Of the 423 schools, colleges and departments of education surveyed, there was found to be little support for lengthening the teacher education programs, but high priority (74%) in adopting more rigorous curricula and especially raising entrance requirements to the program. (Phi Delta Kappan, Dec., 1983) This information is useful in depicting general strategies of the "what is".

Following are presented survey details which relate specifically the "what is" in the colleges of the NCA workshoppers 1983/1984. This summary was compiled by Ruth Anderson* and contains the selection/admissions data of these colleges.



* Dr. Ruth Anderson, who is Chairman of Education at the School of The Ozarks, was a 1984 NCA Workshop participant.

SCREENING PRACTICES AND PROCEDURES USED FOR ADMISSION TO TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS AND TO STUDENT TEACHING IN SELECTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

BY

Ruth G. Anderson
School of the Ozarks

(Summary of a survey completed by participants the NCA Teacher Education Project Workshops held in Flagstaff, Arizona, July 17-August 5, 1983 and in Muncie, Indiana, July 22-August 10, 1984)

		REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO TEACHER EDUCATION		REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDENT TEACHING
INSTITUTION	GPA	Other Requirements	GPA	Other Requirements
ANDERSON COLLEGE	2.25	Recommendations of: Advisor; Department Chairman; Chairman Education Department, "C" or better grades in Gen. Psych, Writing, Oral Expression and Math; Personal characteristics a consideration if problem arises	2.25	Recommendations of: Advisor; Department Chairman; Director of Student Teaching
ARKANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY	2.2	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chairman Major Dept. Passing attention to personal characteristics *New Requirements Now in Effect	2.1 Ovr. 2.5 mjr.	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chairman Major Department
BALL STATE UNIVERSITY	2.1	Identification with Teacher Education Program An "alert sheet" is used to monitor progress; lists are distributed to departments deans--people on teaching curriculum	2.5 El. 2.4 Sec. 2.5 Grad	Clearance from: Advisor; Chairman Major Dept. Student Affairs, Speech and Hearing Clinic; Department Major/Minor Personal interviews by student Teaching Faculty

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INSTITUTION	GPA	REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO TEACHER EDUCATION Other Requirements	GPA	REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDENT TEACHING Other Requirements
GEORGE MASON UNIVERSITY	2.5	Locally-developed competency tests in math and literacy Recommendation of: Advisor; Department Chair; Interview & written statement	Un-cer-tain	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Completion of Prerequisites
IOWA WESLEYAN COLLEGE	2.0	Recommendations of: Advisor; Dept. Chair; Education Dept. Chair; College Teacher Ed Committee; A continuous progress report (checklist with 5 choices on each of 50 questions completed by 3 faculty members each year during sophomore and junior years)	2.3	Recommendations of: Advisor: Chair Major Dept. Chair Education Dept; Teacher Education Committee
MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY *(Secondary Ed.)		Open Admissions Policy	2.0 Ovr. 2.2 Major Minor	Recommendations of: Advisor No grade lower than "C" in professional education coursework
NORTHERN ARIZONA UNIVERSITY	2.5	Completion of 60 hrs. College coursework; file formal application; ATPE (Arizona Teacher Professional Exam - Pass basic skills portion) Recommendations of: Academic Dept (Secondary) Practicum in soph/jr year used to screen; 2 basic Eng. courses; 1 basic math course; 1 speech course; grade of "C" or better in each.	2.5	Recommendations of: Major Dept. (Secondary) "C" or better in all education courses

INSTITUTION	REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO TEACHER EDUCATION		REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDENT TEACHING	
	GPA	Other Requirements	GPA	Other Requirements
OKLAHOMA BAPTIST UNIVERSITY	2.5	English proficiency exam; Recommendations of: Advisor plus 3 past profs. Interview with committee of three members of Teacher Education Committee; demonstrate ability to communicate orally; evidence of past work with youth	2.5 Ovr	Recommendations of: Advisor and 3 professors
SAN DIEGO STATE UNIVERSITY *(5th year program)	3.0 Major 2.75 Ovr	CBEST (Calif. Basic Essential Skills Test) Recommendations of: Advisor Written autobiography Interviews for special appeals Fingerprinting, criminal record; Calif. State Laws		Recommendation of Education Advisor (Department professor)
THE SCHOOL OF THE OZARKS (Missouri)	2.2	ACT (Criterion level to be established) Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept; Teacher Ed. Comm. Representative; Teacher Ed. Committee Formal application with written statement Orientation course and exploratory field experience	2.5 Major 2.5 Ovr.	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Teacher Education Committee Representative; Teacher Education Committee

INSTITUTION	REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO TEACHER EDUCATION		REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDENT TEACHING	
	GPA	Other Requirements	GPA	Other Requirements
UNIVERSITY NORTH CAROLINA-GREENSBORO	2.2*	*Some programs require 3.0 GPA on specified course sequences. Core battery of NTE (Fall of 83) Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Speech screening test - articulation; Organization and presentation of thoughts considered	2.2*	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Coordinator of Field Experiences (verification of data)
WEST LIBERTY STATE COLLEGE	2.0	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Education Dept. Endorsement Chairman; Personal interviews; Recommendations; Professional/ Campus Activities; Knowledge; Achievement, Personal Indiv. and Group Interactive Skills; Professional attitudes; Organismic health	2.0	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Endorsement of Education Dept. Faculty; Personal Interviews (Chair, Director Student Teaching Recommendations)
ECOLE NORMALE SUPERIEURE 109	0-20 10/20	Duel II or dues II (Diplomas of the 2nd year of university studies) -Admission exam -Must have taught at least 5 years. -Admission is subject to availability of places	10/ 20	-Being a certified teacher -Being an active supporter of teaching ideals 110

		REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO TEACHER EDUCATION		REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDENT TEACHING
INSTITUTION	GPA	Other Requirements	GPA	Other Requirements
TAYLOR UNIVERSITY	2.4	Formal application presented to the Education Department, and the Teacher Education Committee; Matrix of their field experiences evaluations, recommended by advisor, the Education Department and then the Teacher Education Committee	2.4 over 3.0 Major	Personal interview with Student Teaching, recommended by advisor, Education Department and then Teacher Education Committee

Data Derived From 1984 Workshop Participants

It was decided that a look at the practices presently in place at the colleges and universities represented at the 1984 Summer Workshop which specifically are related to the human dimension would be desirable. Therefore, a very brief instrument was designed for this purpose. This sample is not to be interpreted as being representative of a braoder population. Data which are presented reflect the status of human dimension elements in the institutions which chose to participate in the Teacher Education Project this year.

Following is a copy of the questionnaire which was used. The responses received are presented as total raw data.

Questionnaire Regarding The Inclusion Of Curricular Experiences Which Focus Upon The Human Dimension of Teacher Education

Below are listed several affective domain behaviors that are important when assessing the human dimension in teacher education.

Please respond to each behavior listed as to whether it is purposely designed to be infused in the teacher education curriculum. If it is not, please indicate what course(s), if any, it is included.

			If no, where? (If at all)	In your opinion, is each behavior modeled by the college teacher		
	Yes	No		Yes	No	
1. Acceptance of others	6	3		6	1	Questionable
2. Building positive self concept	5	4		4	2	
3. Accepting and integrating multi-cultural dimension	8	2		5	1	
4. Showing personal regard to students	6	4		5	0	
5. Interest in guiding students toward self actualization	5	5		3	2	

Please respond to the questions below as succinctly as possible and to the best of your knowledge.

I. The College Supervisor

1. Are standard evaluation forms used by the college supervisor?

8 Yes 0 No

2. Are most of the items on the form cognitively oriented as opposed to affectively oriented?

6 Yes 2 No

3. Are personal conferences among the cooperating teacher, the student teacher and the college supervisor completed at each visit?

6 Yes 1 No

4. Are the conferences (state who is involved) centered around the objective skills as opposed to human relation skills exhibited?

4 Yes 4 No

II. The Cooperating Teacher

1. Is there personal in-service accomplished with the cooperating teacher prior to the student teaching experience?

3 Yes 5 No 1 Sometime

1 If New Cooperating Teacher

III. The Student Teacher

1. Are the affective domain behaviors to which you responded in the first section consistently followed up by the college supervisor during student teaching?

4 Yes or strongly attempted

4 No or very little

Please list any other techniques/strategies in which you feel that you display the human dimension in your selection/retention process pre-service coursework, relationships with the cooperating teachers and the student teacher during the professional semester.

1. Availability to the student teachers
2. Small group seminars with student teachers
3. Provide students catch-up sessions to take the tests
4. No stigma attached to pupils retaking courses
5. Classroom management course
6. Students pace their own learning
7. Students receive immediate feedback
8. Student always knows they are accepted in class
9. Continuous 4 year advisor

10. Personal conferences
11. "Human area" in screening process
12. Interviews
13. S.T. conferences
14. Banquet - open house
15. Open office door and telephone lines

It can be seen that among the colleges and universities represented at the NCA Conference it is generally held that "acceptance of others" is infused in about two-thirds of the cases but multi-cultural dimensions are infused in eighty percent of the cases. What causes the difference? Is it because multi-cultural concepts are mandated? If it is, we can hardly call it a harmonizing attitude.

Guiding students to self-actualization has fifty-fifty chances of being infused and not much better of a chance of being modeled by a college professor.

The respondents tend to think that building a positive self concept is infused and modeled by the college teacher, yet it was reported that the college supervisors all use an evaluation form and that three fourths of them are mostly cognitive oriented.

The conferences following the student teacher observation tend to be divided between centering around the objective or the affective dimensions of teaching. Generally, there are no cooperating teacher in-service efforts, and there is an even split as to whether the affective behaviors are consistently followed-up during the student teacher supervision.

It can be seen that many of our human dimension strategies are based on our student contact outside the classroom or teaching about them in some formal course.

Preservice Preparation

Once the teacher education applicant has been approved, the education department then begins the task of developing the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes for teaching effectiveness. Teacher education faculties have done a good job in the past of equipping teachers with the methods for dispensing knowledge. However, few institutions have launched a serious effort to incorporate the human dimension into their training programs (Gazda, 1971, p. 50). Simmons (1978, p. 111) reports that a very small percentage of teacher education institutions have an organized humanistic program. Institutions need to consider the research findings which indicate that increased teacher effectiveness is dependent more upon the human qualities of the teacher than the skillful use of subject matter teaching techniques (Carkhuff et al. 1977; Gazda et al., 1971).

Once a teacher education institution has made the commitment to implement humanistic programs, the first task would be to identify those qualities that a teacher must have in order to conduct a humane classroom. Combs (1978, p. 558) contends that good teaching is a result of five beliefs and perceptions held by the teacher. A teacher who is concerned about the human dimension (1) is empathic, (2) has a positive self-concept, (3) possesses positive beliefs about other people, (4) views the role of the teacher as a genuine facilitator, (5) is process oriented.

Typically, when a new program is being designed the natural tendency is simply to add courses to the curriculum. However, an attempt to teach the human element by inclusion of a single course would be a simplistic way of dealing with a complex issue. The very nature of humanism denotes that teaching is the *process of becoming*. Therefore, the goal of humanizing prospective teachers would best be accomplished by infusion throughout all aspects of the teacher education program. This would necessitate a thorough examination of the beliefs and practices of not only the pre-service teacher but also the teacher education faculty.

While the five humanistic beliefs and perceptions stated by Combs are crucial areas to be developed, they may not automatically guarantee teaching success. While many teachers possess these beliefs, they may not have the necessary interpersonal skills to carry out their beliefs (Carkhuff, 1969). There is no doubt that effective interpersonal communication skills are somewhat intuitive. However, these skills can be learned, practiced, and increasingly mastered. "Their mastery is critical if you are fully committed to the growth and actualization of your students' potentialities" (Sokolove, Sadler, and Sadler, p. 244).

Not only is it important for the pre-service teachers to learn, to practice, and to master the interpersonal skills, but it is equally important that the teacher education faculty model these behaviors. Two outcomes will result as these interpersonal skills are modeled by the teacher educator: 1) the self concept of the preservice teacher will be enhanced, and 2) the preservice teacher will have a role model to emulate. Heath (1982, p. 36), in his article "The Successful Teacher: Who and Why?" says:

> Successful faculty members served as examples of what the students had not yet become but wished to: professionally competent people who did not let their intellectual competence shield them from "being very human persons." Those teachers who revealed a humanness that included their frailties, who put into action what they believed, and who had developed perspective for their intellectual interests had a deep influence on students who were looking for models for their own lives.

The major emphasis up to this point has been upon interpersonal skill that needs to be modeled by the faculty and developed by the teacher trainee during preservice education. The focus will now shift to identify the specific human relation skills that have thus far been addressed in a broad sense and outline several models for incorporating the human dimension in teacher training programs.

In a recent survey by Strein and French (1984, p. 340-341) a panel of experts determined the key skills necessary for teachers to foster the affective growth of their students. These skills are:

1. having general teacher/learner communication skills;
2. using reflective listening;
3. using "I" messages;
4. using problem-solving and decision-making techniques (nonspecific)
5. helping learners to increase their own problem-solving skills;
6. helping learners to increase their own ability to make decisions;
7. increasing learners' involvement with making rules in the classroom;
8. using effective discipline methods (nonspecific);

9. using nonpunitive discipline methods;

10. using classroom activities designed to increase learners' self esteem;

11. increasing learners' acceptance of other children and adults;

12. helping learners accept themselves, their families, and their own cultures;

13. helping learners to increase self control;

14. increasing cooperation and cooperative work among learners in the classroom;

15. helping learners to learn acceptable outlets for strong emotions, especially anger;

16. structuring learners' work so as to ensure an adequate amount of success;

17. integrating cognitive and affective learnings and goals (confluent education);

18. having general group discussion and group leadership skills;

19. having a general skill in at least one (any) method of counseling;

20. having skill in crisis counseling and intervention;

21. using creative writing for affective development;

22. using children's literature as a resource for affective development (bibliography);

23. using role playing in the classroom;

24. establishing trust between the teacher and the learner;

25. having an awareness of and ability to deal with one's own emotions as they arise in the classroom;

26. having skill at expressing one's own real feelings;

27. having skill at the deliberate modeling of acceptable behavior;

29. having awareness of own philosophy of education and skill at using it as a day-to-day guide; and

30 having the ability to laugh at one's self and one's own dilemmas.

Teacher education institutions should examine this comprehensive list very closely to ensure that all thirty skills are infused during the teacher education program. At first glance inclusion of each of these skills may appear to be an impossible task. However, these are skills that will be developed over a four-year period through the use of methods courses and other course work, through modeling by competent university instructors, and through a variety of field experiences under the supervision of skillful classroom teachers.

When developing models of humanistic teacher education programs, every attempt should be made to build a healthy affective environment, an environment which moves the prospective teachers beyond the role of learner to the highest learning level, which is commitment to carry out that which is learned. Roueche (1981) suggests five stages of affective development. The first step is attending, which is making sure that students are physically present in class. The second stage is receiving or processing the information. Responding is the third stage, and it occurs when the student and instructor engage in some kind of verbal or nonverbal exchange. The fourth stage is valuing, which occurs when learning is relevant and the student begins to see its worth. The final stage is that of commitment or the application to real life situations all that one has come to value.

Genuine affective development has occurred when the final two stages are attained. Herein lies the challenge for teacher education to produce teachers who value the human dimension and make the commitment to act on those values. Following are four models for humanistic teacher education which might be considered as alternatives to the traditional design of teacher training.

Heinz and Saba

Heinz and Saba (1977, p. 17) developed a program whereby the teacher trainee's independent involvement is systematically increased to allow for practice of the skills. Each new skill is first presented by the instructor with the aid of video and audio tapes, transparencies, and/or written exercises. The skill is then modeled by the instructor, and time is allotted for role play among the students. Finally, the students practice the skill in an actual or simulated schoolroom setting.

Heitzman and Starpoli

Heitzman and Starpoli (1974) recommend that courses and regularly scheduled classes be replaced with individual study and small discussion groups. Each student becomes a member of a seminar which is led by the same faculty member for the two-year duration of the program. Students are given the opportunities to work with children every week and are assigned graduated clinical responsibilities. This type of open-ended teacher education design makes it possible for each student to have a very personal kind of experience with learning.

Gunnison and Ladd

The person-centered teacher education model implemented by Gunnison and Ladd (1978, pp. 23-25) is based upon a strong liberal arts foundation. This is followed by an introductory course, taught in the education department, which focuses on the prospective teacher's "perception and understanding of the profession of teaching." Actual participant-observer experiences are also provided during this course to enhance the students' perceptions.

Following the introductory course, the student begins the professional semester in the senior year. This full semester consists of five weeks of on-campus study followed by eight to nine weeks of student teaching. During the five weeks of on-campus work, student teachers learn specific methods in their specialization areas and engage in readings and discussions involving adolescence, personal awareness, motivation, the research base of the program, and interpersonal relationship skills that promote a positive self-concept. Role playing, video-taping, and other human-relations approaches are used in order to give the student teachers a personal frame of reference before they experience student teaching.

Faculty and students participating in this program emphasized physical fitness as another area of concern. They found that being physically fit resulted in "higher energy levels in the classroom." (p. 24)

Participants were involved in off-campus encounter groups where they personally experienced a "high-trust climate in which positive regard, empathy, and genuiness" were encouraged and modeled by the faculty.

Fantasy-relaxation techniques were also taught so students could learn to control their anxiety. "As persons learn to reduce their own anxiety and gain greater control through relaxation, they become more sure and positive about themselves." (p. 25)

Committee Direction

A final model, which is worthy of consideration, has its roots in the small colleges and universities where one finds fewer specialists in specific fields and more generalists who are in close contact with students virtually throughout the program. Through the use of this design, each student is assigned to a committee of instructors who follow the progress of the student throughout the program. The student periodically meets with the committee to discuss areas of special concern and together they develop strategies for dealing with these concerns. The purposes of these meetings are three-fold in that they allow the instructors to really "know" each student on a human level, they allow the committee to individually tailor the program to fit each student's needs, and they allow the committee to monitor the progress of the student.

The task of implementing a humanistic teacher education program is not an easy one. There is more to it than simply adding a course here and there. Opportunities to learn, practice and master the skills necessary for developing a humanistic teacher must be infused throughout the four-year program. There is no one program design that would meet the needs of all institutions; therefore, each institution must examine their own situation and design a program that will be compatible with their philosophy and unique needs.

Student Teaching

When teacher educators are convinced that the human dimension is an essential component of education, that component will become highly visible in teacher education preparation. The various strategies, introduced and developed in those programs, will be implemented and evident throughout the student teaching experience. The desired result will be a concern that the human dimension permeate all of the educational arena and ultimately all of society. It is conceded that this is a long range goal which will not occur without efforts being initiated and commitments being made. The implementation of affective strategies to achieve greater emphasis on the human dimension during field experiences is essential.

Although student teaching focuses on the student teacher, this critical training also involves the skills, talents and understanding of the college supervisor. He is in a position to encourage and assist the student teacher in implementing the philosophical and programmatic concepts regarding the human dimension that have been presented during the pedagogical components in the initial teacher preparation. Student teachers do seem to want and need support from their college (Henry, 1982). Supervisors will be helpful in the affective area only when they are aware of and committed to the concepts and the strategies that are a part of the teacher

preparation program. Anderson (1981) indicates that it is not successful to mandate curricular and instructional change. If this is true, it becomes highly desirable to select college supervisors who have worked with the student teachers prior to student teaching and who are supportive of efforts to interrelate the cognitive and affective domains. Their knowledge of affective strategies and ways they can be implemented in a variety of classroom settings will bridge the gap between theory and practice. Establishing criteria and screening staff for supervisory assignments must be viewed as crucial to the success of the program.

In order to expend their best efforts, supervisors not only need to know the student teacher and the teacher preparation rationale but also must be acquainted with the actual teaching situation. Supervisors have the unique role of working in the public school but not being a member of that staff. They are called on to be facilitators of the student teaching experience, to reconcile differences, and to use persuasion, not coercion, to facilitate improvement of teaching through the supervisory process (Henry, 1982). This ability to establish helping relationships, to be empathic, and to accept students as able and self-directing will present a model to both the student teacher and the cooperating teacher. It will create a climate of openness, allowing the student teacher to trust and to be able to admit weaknesses and problems. This willingness to look at his teaching and to become self-critical will generate within the student teacher the ability for on-going improvement and a more positive self-concept (Merrill, 1973). Purkey's (1970) thesis that a student's positive subjective evaluation of self relates positively to his school achievement has implications not only for student teachers but for the college supervisor and the cooperating teacher. They need to view student teachers as growing and developing, not as accomplished perfected, teachers.

The role of the cooperating teacher is of major importance as the teacher candidate practices in the classroom. It is desirable that the student teacher and the cooperating teacher have a relatively similar philosophy and educational point of view, at least in the beginning phase of student teaching (Heitzman, 1974). Workshops and seminars or training sessions for teachers volunteering to become cooperating teachers should be required prior to asking a cooperating teacher to accept a student teacher. These sessions are to create teacher awareness and acceptance of the goals and program emphasis. Understanding the interrelatedness of the affective and cognitive domains is critical. And the willingness to help the student teacher implement the human dimension would need to be ascertained from the cooperating teacher before the student teaching assignment is made.

It becomes the responsibility of the teacher preparation institutions and the public schools to work cooperatively when screening, selecting and matching student teachers and cooperating teachers. Matching should not be the sole province of administrators. A handbook should be developed jointly by practicing teachers and college educators to provide a guide for supervisory staff selection and consistent student teacher supervision. Affective guidelines would be included.

Gunnison and Reid (1978) believe the selection of faculty is a more serious issue than selecting students. This selection process should result in student teachers having successful, accepting, able and genuine classroom teachers to work with. To a large measure, the key to a successful student teaching experience is cooperative and understanding supervision. The modeling process again evolves as the student teacher observes the cooperating teacher work with students and with the student teacher in a positive helping relationship. It has been suggested that the risk-taking models and process modeling are of greater help than product modeling (Long and Williams, 1982).

With support and modeling from the college supervisor and the cooperating teacher, the student teacher is now ready for a period of concentrated, full-time student teaching to include, as nearly as possible, the full experience of the inservice teacher. Throughout the teaching experience, the various strategies presented in teacher preparation that emphasize the human concerns need to be interwoven into the total curriculum. Student teachers can be taught the helping relationship and to successfully model it for pupils, parents and teachers (Hawn, 1977).

It is recommended that a course focused on problems related to human relations in the classroom be provided while student teaching (Heitzman, 1974). Because it is a time of personal concerns and new experiences, student teaching is believed to be the best time to introduce the seminar in personal human relations. Students are searching for ways to cope; consequently, they are more receptive to new ideas, and they are motivated to try new strategies in relating to people. Their daily classroom experiences provide concrete reference points to which theories concerning human behavior can be related. It is a good time to participate and to observe their own behavior (Borke, 1970). The seminar provides the format for developing and discussing focused exercises that the student teachers are able to try in the classroom. This problem solving method is an effective approach for improving interpersonal communication. Its successful use will increase the willingness to experiment and, in turn, to reinforce that behavior. In addition, students experience feelings of success from activities that involve them in active personal relations with students in the classroom (Henry, 1982).

Other focused exercises that result in problem solving activities and interrelate with affective behavior are questioning techniques, response accepting, active listening, alternative or differentiated assignments, grouping procedures, matching instructional level materials to pupils, simulation and role-playing, motivational efforts, non-verbal behavior and discipline techniques. These exercises relate to many of the affective strategies presented in teacher preparation and also relate to cognitive learnings. Emphasis on the process will result in improved instructional procedures; it will also indicate genuine concern for students. As a result, student teachers will learn that they can affect pupil behavior in the classroom (Purkey, 1978).

There are other ways to help student teachers develop humanistic skills and an awareness that will simultaneously impact on pupils. Checklists of pupil names cause the student teacher to become aware if some pupils aren't included or are over attended. Recording specific behavior on index cards alerts the student teacher to actual activity and involvement. Long and Williams (1982) suggest using wrist or pocket counters for fluency counts of approval/disapproval, smiles/frowns, etc. A stop watch could be used for strategies of longer duration. Student teachers can graph their behavior on a daily basis. Seeing behavior improvement should prove reinforcing and help sustain the efforts. Student teachers who are improving their interpersonal skills are modeling these behaviors over and over daily. It is reasonable to assume that students who experience more empathy from teachers in daily interactions are learning to be more empathic themselves (Hawn, 1977).

Student teachers should actively seek feedback from peers and supervisors. This involves being specific with requests, asking for relevant information and suggestions, and listening carefully to responses. Properly evaluated experience results in learning and increases the individual's personal and professional development (Johnson & Perry, 1974). The total process of evaluation is an effective aid in initiating and maintaining open lines of communication. Teachers who perceived that they were being evaluated communicated more often with supervisors than those who believed they weren't being evaluated (Heitzman, 1974).

There are other strategies to assist student teachers to become involved with developing positive attitudes in students while evaluating their own efforts. Students can compile portfolios of examples of affective efforts used in the classroom, such as, student papers with the number correct recorded or with positive comments or developing a sociogram. Another technique is to record in a log or case study specific efforts to improve an indentified negative self-concept and also to record evidence of changing behavior. Diaries of observations and efforts cause self-evaluating. The student

teachers use of rating scales creates an awareness of their strengths and weaknesses. Rating scales by others can be used for discussion, goal setting and evaluation. When ratings are used for any of these purposes they merit open disucssion with the student teacher.

The use of audiotapes is a relatively easy way to monitor affective non-visual behavior. It requires little effort to set up and it is less imposing. Student teachers are familiar with audiotapes and do not overreact. It is possible to count specific verbal behaviors or to assess time spent in a given behavior. Assessment can be done by the student or self-analysis can be shared (Long & Williams, 1982).

A more sophisticated technique is videotaping. Heitzman (1974) suggests that a trained technician does a twenty to thirty minute filming and that the class is told that they will have the opportunity to view themselves. It is felt that this procedure tends to reduce student misbehaving. The student teacher does self-analytic viewing and determines whether or not to request the supervisor to view it. It can be viewed together or at the supervisor's convenience. If the student teacher desires to erase it and have another taping that is an option. The self evaluation is of greater benefit when specific affective behaviors are targeted for observation. The utilization of audio and video taping can permit more frequent observations and feedback even though the student teaching is being done far from the teacher preparation institution.

The use of telecommunications is a relatively new technological advance for maintaining supervisory contact and for evaluation. Seminars with students at various locations, can be facilitated using telecommunication that can join multiple phones. Computers tied in with telecommunications expand the possibilities for ongoing contact between college supervisors, cooperating teachers and student teachers. Although it is not recommended to replace personal contact, it can be used in maintaining helping relationships and extending support. If student teachers would view this strategy as based on genuine concern then affective learning would be enhanced.

Recommendations have been made relating to the position and importance of the human dimension in teacher preparation programs. It is essential that beginning teachers have the personal and professional affective skills which are essential for pupil learning. The following checklist is provided (see Appendix) as a guide for the college supervisor, cooperating teacher and student teacher in establishing human relations goals and in evaluating them.

APPENDIX

Affective Concerns Checklist

	Adequate	Needs to Improve
1. Responds with empathy to the needs and feelings of others		
2. Offers sincere, positive reinforcement to pupils.		
3. Assists pupils in developing self-awareness and positive self-concepts.		
4. Respects pupils' worth as individuals.		
5. Treats students fairly and firmly.		
6. Communicates effectively.		
7. Establishes rapport with pupils.		
8. Involves all class members daily.		
9. Accepts students' input.		
10. Demonstrates understanding of growth and development patterns.		
11. Encourages individual differences.		
12. Possesses a sense of humor.		

Summary

The preceeding ideas and suggestions about implementing affective strategies are knowledge and experientially based. They are not to be viewed as either inclusive or teacher-proof. Hopefully, they will act as stimulators for more comprehensive efforts. Forthcoming research and new technological advances will need to be viewed in light of their contribution to improved human "safe practices" in the classroom. Readers are encouraged to review, adapt and creatively adjust strategies to the varied and unique teacher preparation programs in our country. College supervisors, cooperating teachers and student teachers who are in agreement about the significance of the human dimension as it relates to students and learning will continue to emphasize the interrelationship of the cognitive and personal aspects of the learning experience. As educators, they are aware that not only educated but caring citizens are crucial to maintaining and enriching American society.

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CHAPTER V

WRITTEN SUMMARIES OF INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH EFFORTS

Name	Title
Ted Bitner	Integrating Effective Teaching Behaviors in Current Teacher Education Curriculum
Coovi I. Datondji	What Does It Take To Be A Teacher Today In A Third World Country?
Don Platz	Early Childhood Teacher Education: Forming a Partnership Between the Human Dimension and Competency Based Teacher Training
Mary Horst	An Affective Melding Model
Helen Rogers	Computers: Fun, Fact, Fancy
Jimmie Russell	Why Johnny Can Read But Doesn't
Norris M. Russell	Teacher Burnout: A HumanProblem
Bob Taylor	A Case for Aesthetics in Education
Karla Telfer	Logo: A Computer Language for a Human Learning Environment
Dorothy Trusock	Veni, Vidi...Education 2084, a Scenario

Integrating Effective Teaching Behaviors in Current Teacher Education Curriculum

By

Ted Bitner

When educators discuss either the human dimension of education or the cognitive approach, neither mean much unless the discussion relates to comparative effectiveness. The public and the politicians speak of effectiveness in education only in terms of measurable student outcomes. Many states which did not require a test for teacher certification purposes now do. Back to basics movements are strong, and they are receiving alot of attention and support.

The human dimension in education is far too often over looked, but it is as important as the measurable outcomes which are so much in demand today. Yet, can we say that the affective attributes which make up the human dimension and which defy quantitative measurement are educationally effective? If the human dimension is to be considered as important in education as the cognitive dimension, it must be shown to be at least as effective. If effectiveness, however, is measured only by quantitative means, the human dimension will never be considered to be as effective.

We seem to know when something is effective, and we may even have a warm feeling for what effectiveness is. Many times we are content to be pragmatic and say that if something works, then it is effective.

Bass (1960) had an interesting view of effectiveness; he believed that just because something was successful it was not necessarily effective. He considered effectiveness measurable by desire and not the outcome itself. If an outcome was attained because of desire to attain it by the group or individual, then the process and the outcome both were effective. If the attainment was made only because the group or individual was made to do it, the attainment could be successful but the effectiveness component would be missing.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977), effectiveness depends not on the actual behavior but on the appropriateness of the behavior to the situation at hand. Appropriateness is not measurable, but it seems to be an important catalyst in determining effectiveness in human relation skills and affective behaviors. As teacher educators, we need to be concerned with effective teaching, our own as well as that of the students we are helping prepare to become teachers. Keeping in mind the way we have defined effectiveness, let us look at characteristics of effective teachers.

Research which has focused on effective teaching is scant and not very recent. The characteristics which did surface as a result of a research review read very nicely; nearly every piece of research that identified characteristics of effective teachers contained such characteristics as friendliness, acceptance, fairness, and the ability to understand; all are unmeasurable qualities. One reason for the paucity of research on teacher effectiveness is that the characteristics could not be measured. Yet, Flanders' research (1965) indicated that an indirect teaching style produced better learning in students as opposed to a more direct style. How does one measure indirectness? Donmoyer (1983) agreed with Flanders' research and Cuban showed that parents and educators value student outcomes which are a result of the indirect style of teaching such as improvision and problem solving.

Brown, Clark and Callahan believed that research, observation, and theory provide many generalizations that are stable and have something to offer for better insight into effective teaching. These generalizations included a balance of cognitive and affective behaviors. When focusing on characteristics of effective teachers the researchers reported five items (1) purposefulness, (2) empathy, (3) being a whole person, (4) being experimental, and (5) diligence. If we try to design an instrument to measure each of these characteristics, we would probably fail because many of the characteristics are affective behaviors. If we know that these affective characteristics are characteristic of effective teachers, why have we teacher educators not done more to teach these elements in our own classrooms?

Ream (1977) reported that seventy-one percent of practicing teachers who were surveyed said they became teachers because they were interested in working with youth. Thirty-four percent of the same group said they became teachers because they had a sense of mission to education. If the students come to us with these attitudes, why do we not foster them in our existing curricula. We may not need more coursework; what we must do is to infuse these ideas into our existing curricula. Infusion of affective behaviors suggests a philosophy, because philosophy always helps to shape our attitudes and our actions. Grant wrote (1983)

> Teacher education students need to develop a philosophy of education while in school so that they will not end up applauding or defending what they are doing simply because it is convenient, but because they have evaluated its merits and believe in it.

Heath (1982) reported a study by alumni and students which identified faculty who had left great impressions. The respondents reported that the teachers genuinely helped them know themselves and find their direction. No one would disagree that these are important accomplishments, but how can they be measured? Indeed, how can we teach these qualities? Combs (1978) said that continuous student exploration of self, others' ideas, (and) purposes is experiential learning. Therefore, teacher educators need to use the field experience in more creative ways to help promote these affective attitudes and behaviors in our students. No new knowledge is required, sometimes just looking at the same idea from many perspectives is enough. We can study a concept in class, then see its many facets in a supervised field experience over a period of time.

It would be ludicrous for the writer to spend these pages building a case for affective-oriented teacher education and then to suggest a paradigm for its integration or infusion. I only want to suggest the idea that teacher educators need to establish a philosophy of education which shapes our actions and attitudes in our professional lives. Many times we give verbal support to liberal ideas while conducting conservative classrooms. While doing this, we must also keep in mind the more inclusive definition of effectiveness.

When we begin to emphasize the *why* and not so much the *how*, we will be on the road to humanizing the educational process. We will then be able to view ourselves as fulfilling a professional calling rather than merely performing a job. Our attitudes in class, in supervision and in advising must demonstrate that we have a purpose and we are fulfilling it. Also we need to take time to empathize with our students, realizing that in so doing we are not letting down on any standards academically. As Combs suggested, we need to use field experiences to greater advantage.

We need only to cultivate these qualities within ourselves and then we must model them for our students. Teacher educators must bring attention to them for our prospective teachers as effective tools which they can use to become more effective teachers. We must stress effectiveness, accept the fact that sometimes it is not measurable, and not apologize for that fact as we begin to pay more attention to the affective dimension of education.

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What Does It Take To Be A Teacher Today In A Third World Country? (The Example of The People's Republic of Benin)

By:

Datondji Coovi Innocent

It is a universally accepted fact that in all societies the school system and its organization and objectives have been somewhat in harmony with the nature and character of the society of which the school is a part. This has been true of many Third World countries where traditional education had the following outstanding features: 1) it was closely linked to social life, both in a material and spiritual sense; 2) it had a collective denotation; 3) it was many-sided; 4) it developed progressively in conformity with the successive stages of physical, emotional and mental development of the child so as to produce out of him a well-rounded personality to fit into the society.

However, with colonization which introduced a new set of values, these four features underwent fundamental changes. It is from this perspective of mutation that one can best examine the present predicament of teachers in a society where he has had to satisfy two major needs; the need to re-evaluate himself and the need to help his people regain their self-confidence which was swept away by the many years of colonial sleep. In many regards, the first need has been somewhat successfully met, thus better preparing the teacher to face the second one more appropriately. Such preoccupation, however, is often retarded by traditional opposite forces exerted on him by his society. This paper attempts to discuss the following items: (1) the concept and role of *'teacher'* in a Third World country, focusing on the example of the writer's country, the People's Republic of Benin, in West Africa; (2) the attributes of a teacher; (3) the social conditions under which he exercises his profession.

The Concept of 'Teacher' in A Third World Country

It has been said earlier that in many Third World countries the teacher, as a former colonial subject, has somewhat succeeded in re-evaluating himself. This process, when added to his literacy, has placed him in a position where he is regarded as an omnipotent person, as being able to solve all of the social problems. This attitude is all the more displaye by the people when the teacher serves in the remotest rural are of this country. In other words, he is often taken out of the context of the classroom thus being given the traditional image which considered him not only as a person capable to impart

knowledge, but also as a source of wisdom. Such a concept generates many roles which people attribute to the teacher and which are worth looking at.

Roles of The Teacher

To some extent, teacher roles are best understood when one identifies them with the aims or the objectives of the education he is called upon to give the learners. Among the many objectives the following can be mentioned; (1) to develop good citizens, (2) to encourage good social relationships, (3) to foster an attitude of inquiry, (4) to encourage an appreciation of the arts, (5) to develop positive attitudes about work, and (6) to foster the all-round development of pupils. These roles, as one may acknowledge, are certainly universal to any type of school. What makes them specific to most Third World countries is the goal of 'developing good citizens'. This goal should aim at teaching the students that they are citizens not of so-called 'mother-countries' but of their native countries. The teacher must show them the necessity to rescue their dear fatherlands from the throes of political bondage, economic strangulation and social obscurity; he must strive to bring them first to believe in economic emancipation, political vindication and social regeneration. Students need to understand the necessity to wage a war against the forces of imperialism in all its subtle forms and manifestations. In other terms, the teacher has to establish values and attitudes which are dependent upon the confidence and understanding that grow from strong personal relations between him and the pupils. Unfortunately, these roles and attributes are often in contrast to those of the rest of the population. This fact is pointed out by L. Broom and J.H. Smith (1963, p. 329):

> In the developing country...the following characteristics of the teacher are sufficiently in contrast to those of the rest of the population to increase his potential mobility: (i) his level of literacy, (ii) his skill in communication which is urgently needed in newly established states, (iii) his recognition of and respect for the established order, (iv) his capacity to represent the local community in its dealings with the bureaucratic environment. As a result, teaching is likely to serve as a bridge to other occupations, usually to more important places in the power structure. Under these conditions and especially in times of rapid development, the teacher serves the community as scribe, informal welfare worker, technical adviser and counsellor. It is a short step from this to politician, trade union leader, public or private bureaucrat, social administrator, or full-time journalist.

This picture well applies to the teacher at the primary school, the secondary school and the university levels. Though these three categories of teachers can all occupy the above bridging positions, the secondary school and university teachers are likely to do so to a greater degree. The conditions under which teachers have to exercise their profession easily explain this situation.

Teachers and Their Social Conditions

Generally speaking, teachers in almost all countries complain about their relatively low financial conditions. One strategy most often used by policy makers to discourage such complaints consists in putting forth and supporting the idea that the profession is a noble and non-quantifiable one whose rewards, in terms of the impact the teachers make upon their society, are more valuable than anything else, moneywise. The ultimate goal of such discouraging comments is to make the teachers believe that they are not entitled to a decent life. Obviously, these attitudes have generated many frustrations when the teachers who compare their social status to those of their former students realize that the latter make better living as football players or boxers to mention only a few of these activities. Therefore, in order to make both ends meet and probably catch up with their former students, some teachers often choose the easiest way out by indulging in politics. The result is obviously damaging for the students who have to shift for themselves by all possible means in order to meet the curriculum requirements. When they are not directly involved in politics, many teachers keep parallel jobs or activities.

If objectivity is possible in this kind of analysis, the writer must acknowledge that the attitudes of many teachers are direct and unavoidable consequences of their school legislature which fails to cope with the school situation and improve their conditions. On the other hand, those teachers who still wish to keep their original enthusiasm for the job and accordingly lead a personal battle towards this goal have to face a general degrading school situation characterized by the following factors; (1) the unwillingness of some pupils to stay on at school, (2) the increase in the number of pupils and decline in their willingness to submit to authority, (3) the decline in teacher status and power as the teacher is misunderstood by the government, the parents, and the students. When considering a second reason for this degradation, one notices an interesting difference between the United States of America and the People's Republic of Benin. In the USA the declining enrollments have created a need for schools to close their doors and to lay off staff. In the Peoples Republic of Benin, new schools are being created every year; class sizes are reaching 70 or 100; and at least 500 new teachers are needed every year at all three levels (primary, secondary

and university). At the same time, many teachers are abandoning the profession.

This tableau, which is only a sketch, enables the reader to have clues about the answers to the issue being addressed, "What does it take to be a teacher today in a Third World country?" Some answers the writer suggests are the following: it takes determination, self-sacrifice, strong sense of patriotism and human dimension in its comprehensive sense. In fact, under the conditions elicited above, any national teacher (*) in a Third World country today must first and foremost fully demonstrate the human dimension which more than anything else holds him to the job. Imagine a primary school teacher aged 18 or 20 leaving his parents for the first time. He is sent to a remote village in his country, starting in life and in a teaching career with no resources or materials. Sometimes he has no table to work on, no chair to sit on, and only a hurricane lamp in his room. Imagine him waiting at least three months before receiving his first salary, which is the equivalent of US$60/month! What does one think he is going to teach? And how well is he going to teach it? The almost impossible tasks that confront him can only be carried out if he is armed with the elements the writer has suggested above. It is in fact well known that a well paid job has become the classic road to self-respect; the chance to discharge one's obligations to others, to achieve identity, respectability, economic security and material comfort, the last three components being highly valued by traditional society.

This paper has attempted to examine the teachers' conditions in Third World countries today, focusing on the example of the People's Republic of Benin, the writer's native country. It is hoped that this brief survey will help to describe what is going on in the teaching situation and lead to a better appreciation of the efforts of those teachers who despite all the difficulties are working towards improving the profession and maintaining its ideals. It is common after such a presentation to suggest some solutions. The only suggested solution the writer can make would be for the teachers to assist the government to be more aware of their conditions. But once again, objectivity imposes on this writer to acknowledge that the government is very much aware, but it simply cannot at the present stage deal with the problem as appropriately as needed. It finds itself entangled in a cobweb of priorities, but with little financial resources to handle them.

(*) As opposed to expatriate teachers whose conditions are different.

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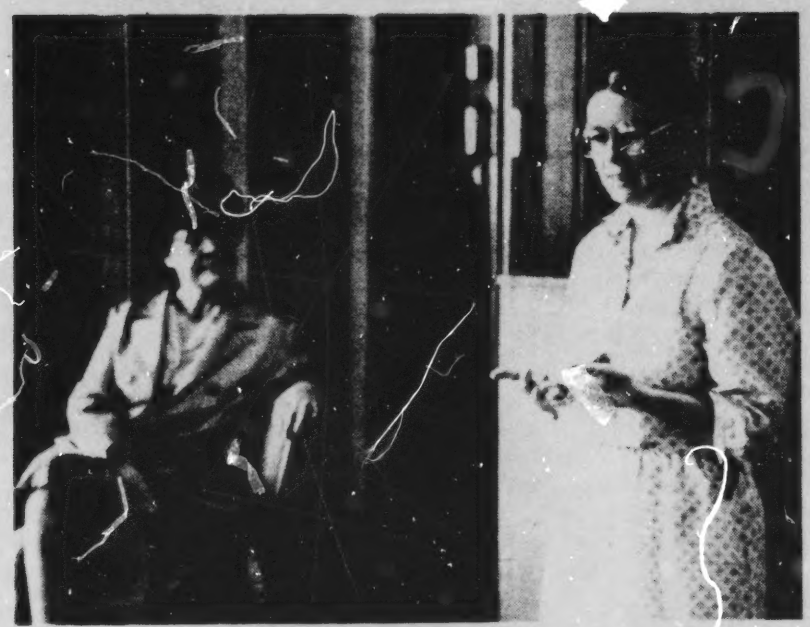

Early Childhood Teacher Education: Forming A Partnership Between The Human Dimension And Competency Based Teacher Training

By

Don Platz

Introduction

The move toward competency based teacher training programs has created a concern for some over the dehumanizing potential inherent in such a pedagogical approach. This concern is magnified for early childhood teacher training programs because of the intrinsic nature of early childhood education. The tradition of early childhood education has brought an emphasis for assisting the total child in his/her beginning life and school experiences. Teachers of young children need to be enriched with the human rudiments of caring, loving, understanding, and so forth. The question becomes then, how can we train early childhood teachers through a training program that is perceived as being standard, structured, and non-personal?

Before moving into a discussion of early childhood competency-based training and the human dimension, it would be helpful to explain the present status of early childhood teacher education in general. The preparation of early childhood teachers is a relatively new phenomenon which is seeking its place in teacher education.

Status of Early Childhood Teacher Education

While elementary education programs have in the past taken responsibility for training a portion of the early childhood trainees kindergarten through third grade, todays early childhood programs have taken the responsibility in many institutions for training personnel pre-kindergarten through third grade. Over half of the early childhood programs in teacher education have been initiated since 1970 with almost two-thirds of the programs being housed in departments, schools, and colleges of education (Spokek, 1982, p. 42).

The early intervention movement of the mid-1960's was a major factor in the establishment of early childhood pedagogy as it exists today. This movement paved the way for certification requirements of pre-kindergarten and primary educators in a number of states. Unfortunately, the certification requirements in many states were greatly influenced by traditional elementary components (Spokek: 1983, p. 43). As a result, there has been concern expressed over the

ability of early childhood personnel at all levels, including pre-school and child care.

While the enacted certification requirements have brought a new status quo to early childhood, they have also created some questionable programmatic changes:

> "Certification requirements have led to an increase in professional education course work in half of the programs (51%) as well as changes in the nature of existing professional courses in over half (54%) of the programs." Spodek: 1983, p. 50)

The positive results of these changes reside in the increase emphasis in pre-kindergarten education, increased field-work experiences and increased student teaching hours. Two of the problems created by the certification movement were: (1) less flexibility in curriculum, and (2) less opportunity for students to gain a knowledge base for working with the human dimension. It is the second of these problems that will be the focus for the balance of this paper as it relates to the current emphasis in teacher education, competency-based teacher training.

Competency-Based Training In Early Childhood

Competency-based teacher training in early childhood had its roots in recent years from the Child Development Associate (CDA) program. The CDA program was developed in the early 1970's by the government. The program was a competency-based approach for the training of child care personnel. Fifty-one competencies were assessed in six major skill areas through a checklist format. The CDA program, however, was not usually a part of teacher education training programs. The CDA program along with the recent movement towards competency-based teacher training will continue to have an impact on early childhood teacher education programs (Peters: 1974, p. 13). While the trend has been slow in developing (Spodek: 1983, p. 51), more programs may be changing as certification requirements begin to reflect competency-based teacher qualifications standards.

The issue of competency based teacher training is a question that early childhood educators will have to deal with. Hopefully, teacher education programs will have the opportunity to choose for themselves the extent to which they may or may not adopt a competency-based teacher training program. If they do choose to or are required to adopt the competency approach, the next question for this discussion is, "how do early childhood teacher training programs develop competency-based curriculums which maintain the human dimension?"

The Partnership

In speaking of the human dimension, one is trying to deal with the caring, understanding, and human aspects of the teaching profession. As suggested by Combs (1981), one ought not feel that being human implies being too tender or laxed. The human dimension should not weaken; rather it will toughen the quality of teacher training programs in early childhood.

The key questions for our discussion then becomes, "How can a partnership be developed between the competency-based early childhood teacher training approach and the human aspects of teaching?" What components can be built into our training programs to allow for both these elements to emerge? The assumption underlining these questions is that the partnership is feasible and possible.

Though not founded on experimental research, the following partnership strategies are recommended as a means of infusing teaching as art (human component) with teaching as design (competency-based training):

1. Include humanistic competencies in the preservice curriculum.

2. Include non-competency based seminars to focus on teaching as art in the curriculum.

3. Allow students having difficulty with program retention policies to have access to specific advisors to aid in student self-evaluation of goals relating to teacher education.

4. Require interdisciplinary course work that raises issues concerning the human dimension.

5. Through 'brown-bag' lunches by faculty, discuss and review the need to maintain good human models for prospective teachers.

6. Build human characteristics/criteria into the search committee's evaluative process, when looking for new faculty.

7. Lastly, demonstrate the human dimension yourself in your teacher training activity.

There are many additional strategies that could be included to help bring together a strong bond between the human dimension and competency-based teacher training in early childhood teacher education. These seven were identified because they are practical, workable, and because they do not necessarily detract from the goals of a competency-based

teacher training model. It is felt that if a portion of these were developed that additional strategies would emerge.

Summary

Early childhood teacher education programs have a number of issues to deal with. One issue relates to competency-based teacher training. While it is hoped that institutions would be allowed to determine if competency-based training is an approach to be implemented or not, early childhood programs which are developing competency-based training should include the human dimension in a partnership. Lastly, by incorporating the few curriculum strategies suggested, a partnership between competency-based teacher training and the human dimension may be realized by early childhood teacher education programs.

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An Affective Melding Model

By

Mary Horst

Albert Einstein said, "The formulation of a problem is often more essential than its solution..." (Einstein and Infeld, p. 92, 1938). Educators are reticent to accept this idea when problems in education abound and solutions aren't forthcoming. But what if, just what if, by adding a new problem we might help resolve several? In this period of accountability and basic skills where a myraiad of items are segmented and isolated, maybe it is time to think of melding. Maybe, when national reports are suggesting adding time to the school year, it is time to think of ways to better utilize the time we have. Maybe, in this period of *high tech* there is a need to reconsider the human element. Can teachers meld the areas of metacognition, self-concept development, and higher level questioning into an effective, affective teaching model.

Metacognition

Metacognition is a higher-order reading process involving self awareness and self control of the reading act by planning, checking and evaluating activities. Brown, Camprone, and Day (1981) include (1) the task objective, (2) the kind of material to be learned, (3) the general characteristics of the learner, and (4) the strategies to learn that are used by the reader as the four major variables in metacognition instruction. These four variables must fuse for successful learning to occur. Expert readers are spontaneous and unconscious of monitoring their comprehension and retention. The self-evaluate they progress in light of the text and task objective. They read in an automatic fashion until a comprehension problem alerts them; such as reading house for horse in the sentence "he rode a horse down the road." When a problem occurs, the understanding process slows and readers become demanding of meaning and effort rises to a conscious level. With the less expert readers, there is neither automaticity or awareness of the need to plan and to monitor understanding. For example, they would read house for horse and continue without realizing the problem. The expert readers have learned how to learn from texts; whereas, less successful readers have not. But it is recognized that metacognitive skills develop slowly and do not appear until after most of the cognitive skills are developed (Anderson, Osborn, Tierney, 1984).

Self-Concept Development

Combs (p. 159, 1982) states, "a person's self-concept is probably the most important single factor in determining behavior. One's successes or failures, for example can cause a person to feel adequate or inadequate." Purkey (1978) offers

researched-based evidence for his thesis that each student's self-concept significantly relates to school success or failure. Since teachers have an important role in student perception of self, they should have strategies for helping to develop positive self-concepts. One strategy might be to provide a more humanistic learning climate rather than a conforming, dependent, impersonal environment. Goals such as success, helping relationships, and warmth are within the province of willing teachers.

Questioning

Questioning is the most frequently used teaching tool of teachers. Often considered central for effective teaching, questions are used to determine if students understand and remember what has been taught and if they are able to apply the learnings. "Theory suggests that teachers should ask higher-cognitive-level questions to have students apply learnings, while practice demonstrates that teachers ask low-cognitive-level questions to check recall of knowledge" (Wilen, 9, 1982). Teachers' questions reveal their beliefs about students, instruction, and the curriculum. Effective teaching is the result of considered decisions whereas classroom questioning is frequently based on intutition and experience. "Teachers clearly do not consider a major purpose of their questions to be to stimulate higher-level student thinking" (Wilen, 9, 1982).

In the 1950's following Bloom's classification scheme of educational objectives in the cognitive domain, Sanders adapted it, to seven levels of questions. Guildord's Structure of Intellect had five major groupings, and Gallagher and Aschner had four categories which were cognitive-memory, convergent thinking, divergent thinking, and evaluative thinking (Wilen, 12-13, 1982). With the classification of questions simplified, teachers can readily analyze the questions they use and determine the level of thinking which they hope to stimulate since the question determines the level of thinking required. It has been recommended that teachers be trained "to incorporate interaction techniques focusing on verbal cues to help students become aware of the thought processes required to respond appropriately" (Wilen 18, 1982).

Another area of research related to questioning has addressed the period of time between the teacher asking the question and the student responding. This time to reflect has been named "wait time." By increasing wait time from one second to five, correct responses increased in length and in number. Teachers need to adjust to an increased wait time before soliciting responses (Gambrell, 146, 1980).

There has been little research on student attitudes in relation to teacher questioning behavior. Wilen (22, 1982)

does report that although reading literature changed fifth graders' attitudes, involving students in a discussion after reading significantly increased attitude change. American history students exposed to four treatments of questioning did not prefer higher-level questions. Students preferring low-level questions performed best on written tests. It may be necessary to train students to prefer higher-level questioning.

Melding

Can a teacher who is skillful in questioning, capable of teaching readers to learn how to learn, and committed to improving pupils' self concepts successfully meld these three important areas into an effective humanistic instructional model? It appears to be not only feasable but desirable and efficient. The components of the three areas compliment and overlap so that learning and reinforcement should occur.

Teaching metacognition skills involves instructing in all of the four variables previously listed. First, while training students in the importance of clearly knowing what the final task of an activity or assignment is, open-ended inferential questions, modeling and leading students to self-questioning skills can be incorporated. Divergent questions at higher cognitive levels provide for an accepting, successful atmosphere where probing, cuing and positive rewarding are possible. Asking the question, pausing, then calling on a student to answer, leads all students to listen to the question. The pause provides thinking time. Pushing student responses to "why" and "how" questions then to higher levels by asking for more explanation is effective. It is unwise to embarrass a student by repeatedly asking questions the student is unable to answer, but it is wise to offer praise words for correct answers (Jones, Bagford, Wallen, 1979).

Text analysis is the second training area in using metacognition skills. Expository writing in the various content texts utilizes different writing patterns and requires different reading skills. Knowledge of book parts, organization, and format require specific planned instruction and analysis. How to use headings, subheadings, summaries, italics, phonetic respellings, the use of maps, graphs and charts etc. should be taught. Instruction lends itself to modeling by the teacher and provides for student success in using the text as a learning tool. Higher level comparing and contrasting of texts should be encouraged. Practice activities in using the glossary or index can include interaction techniques with verbal cues to assure understanding and confidence.

Learning to learn involves the third variable of the student knowing himself. Students must understand how strengths, weaknesses, interests abilities and experiential background relate to learning and motivation. This area permits

students to view themselves as unique and of value. The affective domain has a significant effect on the learning process. Students achieve in relation to their perceptions of their own abilities, and teachers can affect change in student perceptions.

The fourth variable involves comprehension and study strategies. Recent research indicates that comprehension and study skills are infrequently taught. More often, they are just assessed and correct responses are used to indicate mastery. Instructional procedure should include an explanation of what the skill is modeling and how it is used, providing examples to allow the student to experience the process and then to help students to transfer the skill to meaningful application. Rules for monitoring and checking the strategies should also be taught. Convergent and divergent questions are compatible with this instructional procedure. Critical and creative questioning provide feedback to teacher and pupil. Well-thought-out questions may need to be structured in advance, for higher level cognitive questions stimulate the students to reason, evaluate and even create.

Although the four metacognition skill areas have been explicated separately, actual instruction would involve fusing clearly stated objectives with specific skill instruction applicable to that textual material and would be adaptable to individual strengths. Throughout, good questioning techniques and help in building positive self-concept have been melded with the instructional procedure. Needless to say, the success of this model is contingent on the teacher's conviction, skill and effort. The melding model seems to be reinforcing, efficient, and affective? Aren't there other areas that can apply the melding model?

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Computers- Fun, Fact, Fancy

By

Helen E. Rogers

An article in the Marion Chronicle newspaper on July 19th caused me to reflect on the usefulness of computers in our society today. This article dealt with a fourth grade boy's dislike of all school subjects except for "computer time." He stated that the teacher had prepared computer programs to teach certain subject matter, but he had developed a technique that allowed him to change the software and to be able to "do his own things" - fun!!

I stood in the doorway and observed seven young boys in the video game room of the hotel where we were staying. I estimated that these boys ranged in ages from six or seven to sixteen. They were pushing quarters into the many varieties of "toys" and the only noise to be heard was the clinking of the money and the loud noises that emitted from the games. There was absolutely no verbal communication among the boys who were totally oblivious of one another and me. As they finished their games, they silently moved to another machine or walked out. Some were still there when I decided to move on. There was no socialization happening here - no *high tech* either.

Another situation that happened also reaffirmed the need for *high touch* in our relationships in this high technological area. I was helping my 2½ year-old granddaughter prepare to go to the store with me. I looked around her room and observed much high tech equipment - video recorder, television, calculator, computer in family room, video games, and stereos, even velcro on her shoes, and it reminded me of Margaret Mead's cultural cycles.

I tend to want to function in the configurative cycle, but I ask myself what can I really teach this child who is growing up in a total technological surrounding? As I found myself thinking about our high tech world, this very same child crawled into my lap and cuddled close as she asked me to read to her. She needed me to give her the special touch that no amount of high tech can give to her. Our conversation and physical touching reaffirmed for me the need for teachers, parents and children to grow into the prefigurative cycle.

The computer age has brought our society to the threshold of massive changes. The changes take place with bewildering speed in the areas of space, science and, research, (all of which improve our health and longevity), and the changes affect our daily life styles. This prospect of widespread change has

The "mind workers" in tomorrows' high technological society must be exposed to value choices by wise teachers, parents and the public. What tomorrow brings will depend on where our insightful human values (or the lack of them) will lead us as we move into the future of our informational society. This is living and learning and responding in a high tech age (Shane, p. 129).

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frightened some and inspired others; it captivated many and attracted those who anticipated a windfall of material profit. One outcome of the massive technological change has been a "social disorientation" displayed in terriorism to isolation and even suicides (Judd, p. 120).

Thomas O'Brein discusses the area of "dynamic knowledge" a structure of ideas built by action (the computer) rather than copying from a book, teacher or another person. Dynamic knowledge can be easily reconstructured and lends to new knowledge. Computer software should provide this, but it not always does because the technicians who produce software, think the color, graphics, buzzers and bells are the educational value (O'Brien, p. 118).

Those who use computers as a form of entertainment, such as video games, may show the effects which result from a lack of socialization and communication skills, reading level abilities, and developing the skills which will be transferable to jobs available in our changing world of work. There is a controversy over the merits or demerits of the video games that have invaded homes, schools, and every area of the society. In 1982, 38 billion quarters clinked into slots and home video venders grossed $4.5 billion in sales. Some communities have set a minimum age for admission to video arcades. Other communities have forbidden youths to enter these establishments during school hours in an attempt to curb the absentism of "video junkies" (Shane, p. 126). Prolonged video game playing (five or six hours at a stretch) has triggered epileptic seizures in young adults.

Computers have had little effect on the enduring problems such as racism, affordable housing, teenage pregnancy, crime, drug abuse, child abuse, family instability, unemployment, poor reading and writing skills. Computers should develop skills that link the learning to the real world. This can be accomplished through the interaction of people to people; teachers, parents and peers must aid in this high touch area and must be attentive to support character development goals.

Combs has written that our society must produce more persons with cognitive skills combined with the humaness that displays reliability, responsibility and cooperation in this technological age (Combs, 1972, p. 23).

Being with and sharing with other people should be (and has been) invigorating; people need people! Even the "computer jock" eventually needs to communicate with some other human even if it is to share only in "computer vocabulary" (Shane, p. 127).

Why Johnny Can Read But Doesn't

By

Jimmie Russell

Over a quarter of a century ago, with the release of Rudolph Flesch's Why Johnny Can't Read, certain factions of the American public were in an uproar over the apparent inability of the public schools to teach children how to read. The book emphasized that a shockingly large number of children were not learning to read at all. Now, almost thirty years later, there are still research reports which indicate that Johnny still does not read very well. The basis for this panic over illiteracy comes in the wake of the steady decline in reading tests, achievement test scores, and college entrance examination scores.

On the other side of the coin, however, published research reports reveal that reading is alive and well in the United States. Farr (1979, p. 878) concludes that "fundamental illiteracy has been eliminated for all except the most seriously physically and psychologically handicapped." The fact is that functional literacy for everyone in America is a near reality because most children do grow up with the ability to read to get information and find answers to questions. One would be hard-pressed today to find a recent high school graduate who could not read well enough to function in society. The vast majority of adults can read when the need arises. Unfortunately, this kind of news does not often reach the newspaper headlines.

One would logically conclude, then, that classroom teachers and the reading specialists are doing a better job of teaching reading than ever before, and they are, if reading is defined as the ability to decode and comprehend the author's message. However, this is a very narrow definition of reading, and it implies that the major goal of reading instruction is literacy. Literacy, however, should not be the sole objective in reading instruction. If in the definition of reading one includes self motivation to select books and sustain oneself in silent reading purely for pleasure, then teachers have fallen painfully short of their obligation to their students.

It is evident that teachers are succeeding in teaching their students how to read, but they are not doing as well teaching them to read. In a nation-wide study by the Book Industry Study Group, Guthrie (1979, p. 752) reports that ninety-four percent of the 1,450 people surveyed had read either a book, magazine, or newspaper in the last six months,

but of that same population when asked to list reasons why they read, only fifty-six percent said that they read for pleasure or recreation. Guthrie also reports that fifty-five percent of the population had read a book in the last six months. This means that the remaining forty-five percent had not read a book in the last half year, and one would wonder how long it had been since that forty-five percent had read a book. Smith (1980, p. 37) reports the results of a study which indicate that high school graduates read fewer than two books per year on the average, while college graduates average fewer than three books per year. According to these statistics, the greatest problem appears not to be that people cannot read, rather that they do not consider it an activity worthy of their leisure time.

The question then becomes, why is it that a large percentage of the adult population can read, but chooses not to read for recreation? This is a complex issue for which there is no simple answer, and failure to take into consideration the total picture when evaluating the situation might cause one to place blame where it does not belong. A comprehensive evaluation of the school situation would reveal that the answer no doubt lies somewhere in the child, the family, the teacher and teaching methods the child was subjected to, and the leadership of the school. In addition, on an even broader scale, the community, state, and entire society in which a person lives have an influence on each individual's reading habits. However, it would be beyond the scope of this paper to address each of these areas. Therefore, it will be the purpose of the remainder of this paper to focus on a few of the current teaching practices that might have contributed, at least in part, to the high percentage of literate non-readers in America today; and to propose some humanistic alternatives that might instill in children a genuine love of reading that will carry over into their adult lives.

There are many possible reasons why some current classroom methods result in students who are disinterested in reading. The recent basic skills emphasis, the program approach, and the medical model in reading instruction could all be causes for the negative attitudes which many children have toward reading; and this disinterest and sometimes dislike for reading could very likely carry over into adult life.

In the field of reading there seems to be a distinct philosophical camp that believes that reading is such a complex task that is should be broken down into separate subskills to be taught and easily mastered by the students (Kamm, 1978). This approach has been around for decades and has been called the "common sense" approach to reading instruction because it appears logical that the total reading process would become more teachable if individual skills could be identified and taught apart from the complex whole. One major drawback of

this kind of logic is that a large number of teachers institute a heavy skills-oriented program, and many students do not see the connection between total reading and the isolated worksheets, workbook pages, and learning center activities that they are required to complete, (Grein, 1974, p. 72), (Blair, 1982, p. 6), (Starkey, 1984, p. 4). Therefore, for those children there is little, if any, transfer from the knowledge of the skills to the total reading act.

Another major problem with the skills approach is that when reading is broken down into small units, the lessons that ensue are so far removed from reading as an enjoyable activity that children come to perceive "reading" as tedious and uninteresting; and they do not see reading as a meaningful process (Gillis, 1981, p. 4). It is no wonder that many children who begin school with an interest in reading which began at home with their parents reading to them and sharing the enchantment of stories are soon turned off by the dull and apparently relentless drill on skills that are supposed to make up the total reading interprise. The unfortunate result is that many students begin to consider reading to be boring rather than exciting. A second possible source of adult disinterest in reading which may have originated in the schools is the present over-emphasis on "programs." Educational programs are seen in schools in the form of sets of materials, workbooks, kits, manuals, record sheets, television series, and computer-based instructional sequences, to mention a few. There are a plethora of reading programs available on the market today; most are touted as "total programs", and they claim to be so comprehensive and detailed in their instructions to the teacher that some users consider them "teacher proof", meaning that even the most inexperienced and inept teacher could use the program with success as long as the program is followed step by step with no diversions from the detailed instructions. This perceived need for programs has grown out of the belief that experts in the fields of linguistics, psychology, computer science, etc. could achieve educational ends beyond what the classroom teacher, with her limited knowledge, could expect to achieve (Smith, 1981, p. 635-656).

Just as the skills approach to reading instruction appears to be a "common sense" approach, so does the program approach because it is designed by prominent experts in the field; indeed, it is difficult to disagree with that kind of "logical" explanation. However, upon closer examination, some common characteristics of programs and the possible consequences of these characteristics may provide an understanding of the limitations of a single program approach to reading instruction.

First of all, instructional decision making is taken away from the classroom teacher and transferred to persons who are far removed by time and distance from the classroom in which the program is being utilized. This is done in the belief that

decisions that classroom teachers make are random and likely to interfere with learning. "There is an assumption that the program will be more sensitive and intelligent than the teacher, that instructional decisions will be better made in advance by individuals who do not know and cannot see the child who is supposed to be learning from the program" (Smith, 1981, p. 636). In addition, programs are often so rigid that there is not room for the teacher to make decisions within the program, and this places critical limitations on what can be achieved by the classroom teacher, yet it is a paradox in that this is the very attribute that some say is a virtue of the program (Smith, 1981, p. 636).

As a classic example, consider the impact the single basal reader program approach has on the child. Countless administrators, school boards, and teachers buy into the notion that reading can be successfully taught throughout the district with the use of a single basal series. Furthermore, teachers have been successful at teaching reading to at least the majority of the students by using this approach, at least in the sense that most of the children do become literate. If, however, the broader definition of reading is used, a definition which includes word recognition and comprehension being equally as important as self motivation to engage in reading, then the basal approach would in many instances fail to accomplish this purpose.

The shortcoming of the sole use of the basal reader, or any program, is that the self selection of reading materials is nonexistent. The children are assigned stories to read with no regard to the interest they might have in the story. As a result, the danger exists that students will go for days, weeks, or even longer, never reading a story in which they are interested. The natural consequence of children reading day after day in books that have stories that are of no particular interest to them is that reading becomes regarded as boring to them. Hence, reading may be avoided because it is not considered an enjoyable activity, rather it is viewed as something the teacher imposes on them.

Bettelheim (1981, p. 51) contends that "those who retain all through life a deep commitment to literacy harbor in their unconscious some residue of their earlier conviction that reading is an art permitting access to magic worlds...". One cannot expect children to consider reading magical when they are subjected only to reading material that is selected for them and that they find boring.

Another characteristic of reading programs is that they concentrate on teaching reading as an intensive activity; always drilling on a skill or making sure everyone comprehended all of the "important" details of the story. As a result, children come to regard reading as a comprehensive and tedious activity

(Hunt, 1974, p. 73). No commercial program on the market yet has ever suggested that the child select any book in the library, prop us his feet, enjoy the experience of reading something that excites or interests him, and simply get from the book what he chooses, not what he thinks the teacher wants.

A third and final classroom practice which might be contributing to the inability of some adults to view reading as a pleasurable activity is the application of the medical model for examining student reading habits. The teacher in this case becomes a diagnostician who runs "tests" to find out what is wrong with the reading of each child and then sets out to cure the perceived illnesses (Hunter, 1979, p. 189). This, again, is a "common sense" approach to reading in that it is logical to believe that in order to improve a child's reading ability, one must identify the child's weaknesses and then correct them in an attempt to make him a better reader. Through a closer examination, however, one would realize the shortcoming of such an approach. When emphasis is placed only on what a child cannot do, reading becomes a difficult task and students begin to doubt their own abilities. Also, the identification of specific deficiencies necessitates isolated drill and practice in the deficient areas and, once again, reading becomes an activity the children prefer to avoid.

The over-emphasis on skills, the use of a single program approach, and the emphasis on deficiencies in the medical model are methods of teaching reading which are all prominent in schools today. In order for a change of this situation to occur, it would be necessary to begin a campaign to inform inservice and pre-service teachers of the hidden curriculum, or unintended outcomes that emerge as a result of an over-emphasis on any one of these approaches. Awareness of the effects, however, is not enough. Teachers need to be armed with strategies that would foster a love of reading while they are teaching reading.

Each of the approaches discussed above treat reading as something that is done to the child and is devoid of any sensitivity to each child as an individual with unique needs and interests. If teachers were trained in strategies for humanizing reading and making reading an exciting activity, then possibly students would grow up with a deep appreciation of literature that would manifest itself in a lifetime of reading for recreation. A humanistic approach would emphasize the dignity and interests of each child and give them as many tastes of success as possible so that children bloom rather than wilt. By focusing on the human aspect, teachers would not only teach students to read, but they would also teach students that reading can open new worlds to their minds and imaginations.

Beginning readers must understand that reading is a meaningful context. All reading skills do not have to be learned and mastered outside the context of reading. Isolated skills do have a place in reading instruction, but not to the extent that some have emphasized such an emphasis.

For example, consider a small child who is learning to talk, which is a complex task very similar to learning to read. A parent would not think of sitting a child down and saying, "Okay, Johnny, today you are going to learn to speak the words chair, floor, and table," and proceed with fifteen minutes of practice on those particular words. Nor would a parent drill a child on the proper conjugation of the irregular verb "see". Instead, a child learns to speak and learns the rules of the language intuitively by hearing spoken language every day and becoming aware of the usefulness of being able to speak (McDonnell, 1975, p. 438).

The same logic would hold true for the beginning reader. If he is surrounded by and interacting with written language in the form of books and stories, then he can intuitively learn the rules that govern reading; and he will be able to apply them because they were learned in a meaningful context. This meaningful context will make reading a much more enjoyable activity (McDonnell, 1973, p. 444). A heavy skills orientation clouds the fact that the best way to teach reading is to have children read.

In-service and pre-service teachers must be instructed in the selection and utilization of materials based on first hand knowledge about the students being taught. The multitude of programs available to teachers today are of such variety with regard to content and methodology that these differences should be used to the student's advantage. The teacher should not choose one single program. Rather, the several programs that seem best suited for the individual differences of the students involved should be used. Independent judgment by a sensitive teacher must be used in the implementation of the programs to insure that the best parts of each program are utilized.

Using a variety of prepared programs, however, is still not enough. The teacher must see that the children are given the freedom to explore the exciting world of books-not just books chosen by the teacher or program publisher, but rather free choice from a wide variety of books. Every effort should be made to determine the personal needs and interests of each individual child so that books within those areas of interest can be provided to enchant and entertain even the most reluctant reader.

Time must be provided for the children or the teacher to read the books that they have selected. This reading should be done for pure pleasure and without the threat of being asked questions over the content. This approach will convey the

message that reading can be relaxing and fun, not tedious and stressful.

Finally, teachers and pre-service teachers need to be aware of the effects that a poor self-concept can have on student performance (Wirth, 1977, p. 33), (Newberg, 1982, p. 499) and the detrimental effect which an over-emphasis on the negative aspect of the medical model can have on a child's self-concept. With a balanced sensitivity to the diagnostic and prescriptive approach, the teacher would be more likely to emphasize what the child can do and build on that knowledge, rather than to emphasize the child's deficiencies and destroy his view of himself as a competent person.

In conclusion, if teachers do believe that self motivation to select books and sustain oneself in silent reading for enjoyment is a top priority in reading instruction, then a thorough examination must be made of the strategies that are presently being employed in the classroom. This effort will help to determine the hidden effects that they are having on students. Teachers must institute a more child-centered approach to teaching reading-an approach that presents reading as a meaningful process, that includes self selection from a wide variety of books, and that emphasizes the strengths of the students. If children are expected to consider reading to be fun, then ample time must be allotted for them to have fun reading.

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Teacher Burnout: A Human Problem

By

Norris M. Russell

Sue Tyler graduated from a nationally known university and a professionally accredited teacher education program with a diploma in one hand, a teaching certificate in the other, and an all encompassing enthusiasm to get a job teaching physical education and begin to make positive changes in the lives of young people. She would not settle on being an ordinary teacher; this goal had related to her classmates in one of her professional education classes, but would strive to make the classes relevant and interesting to the students. They would depart from her classes sharing equally in her enthusiasm, would be changed persons, and, in every sense of the word, would be physically educated. She would individualize the instruction to compensate for the less physically gifted, as well as those who were the most talented, thereby affording all students the opportunity to succeed under her tutelage. She would maintain an open door policy, and no student would be turned away.. She would be available for counseling and to share her advice with those in need, for, after all it wasn't that long ago that she had had similar problems. Yes, Sue was unwaivering in her conviction that physical education was a medium through which she would make significant inroads toward solving the problems of the youth of the day.

During her first year of teaching, Sue encountered large classes of generally disinterested students. The gym was dark, old, and largely inadequate (unlike the one the basketball team used), and, when she requested increased budget to purchase needed equipment, she was met with administrative double talk about lack of funds. The football team and band, however, got new uniforms every other year. Isolation was a feeling that she had to deal with, not only because she found herself in the gym most of the time, but also because her colleagues regarded her merely as a"gym teacher". Increasingly, she was plagued by students not participating in the class, discipline problems, and the constant interruptions of students being released from P.E. class to make up an exam for another class, or to run errands for the principal. The administration seemed to regard her class as glorified recess which was an attitude shared by the students. When she did try to institute some standards, she was met at first by hostile parents who demanded to know how their sons and daughters received low grades in "P.E." class, and then she was confronted by the principal to "ease up, because, after all, it's just a gym class."

Not only that, but Sue gradually found that more and more

of her time was being occupied with large amounts of paperwork, seemingly unending committee sessions, required PTA meetings, inservice workshops, the content over which she had no control, and she was a class sponsor and was also responsible for the cheerleaders. This required that she attend all home and away football and basketball games which occupied many of her evenings and weekends. The only consolation for this sponsorship was that she did not have to sell tickets at every other home game. When she inquired about compensation for her extra duties, she was again told that there were no funds available, yet the football coaches received nice bonuses from the booster club because of their successful year. On top of all of this, her contract stipulated that she would complete a Masters degree within five years to help maintain her professional competence.

At first, in the face of this adversity, Sue was able to maintain her resolve and her enthusiasm waned only slightly. However, over the years, the seemingly endless battles that she waged began to errode her self-esteem to the point that she changed her Masters degree major to computer science. After ten years of teaching, Sue merely "rolled out the ball" and watched the students play, and became sarcastic and cynical in her dealings with them. After 15 years, Sue was no longer teaching, but had gone to work for a computer software company. At a point when she should be at the pinnacle of her career, Sue was leaving the profession as a burned out, disillusioned shell of what she had been.

Though the character is fictitious, unfortunately, the scenario is all too real. The burnout problem for teachers is epidemic and, though some disciplines may be predisposed to the problem, it seems to cut through all areas of teaching. Because the situation is so pervasive throughout our educational system, the purpose of this paper will be to explore this issue, and offer solutions from a humanistic perspective. What is burnout, what exactly is the nature of the burnout dilemma, and how can we as teacher educators better prepare prospective teachers to deal with it? Can it be that at least part of the problem is the perpetuation of a system in which the very reason that people become teachers is lost in the bureaucratic shuffle? That is, are the teachers as well as the students victims of the problem laden school systems? (Farber and Miller, 1981, p. 235). Could it be that we are losing the major focus of education, i.e., the student at the center of the learning process? Is this a major piece in the burnout puzzle? And could we deal more humanely with prospective teachers at the preservice level to help them more readily face the realities of the schools?

Ironically, or perhaps most apropos, while we are living in the computer age, contemplating and debating the virtues of the use of computers in instruction, educational prescription, and, further removing the teacher-student relationship as

central to the educational process, the word "burnout" also is a spaceage term. It applies to the loss of propulsion or the end of combustion of successive stages of a rocket as it is lifted into higher and higher orbits (McPherson, 1983, p. 199). In professional circles, the term has come to mean various and sundry things ranging from circuit overload (Horton, 1984, p. 69), to professional disillusionment (Campbell, 1983, p. 111), to learned helplessness (Greer and Wethered, 1984, p. 524). Scrivens (1979, pp. 34-5) describes it in terms of Eliot Rosewater's "Blig Click" in Vonnegut's God Bless You Mr. Rosewater. However, regardless of the descriptions, all sources seem to concur that it is the result of chronically high stress levels without relief, coupled with increasing burdens over which teachers apparently have little or no control.

In fact, in describing this feeling of no control as it applies to special education teachers, Greer and Wethered (1984, p. 525) employ a model of "learned helplessness" as originally described by Overmeir & Seligman (1967). In their work with dogs they found that the group of canines which had no control over the receipt of electric shocks soon only cowered, whimpered, and made no effort to escape. While this is an extreme example, and while it is difficult to imagine a third grade teacher "cowering and whimpering" in the corner of her room (or is it?), the effects of such feelings manifest themselves in many ways, One way it is manifested is motivational to the extent that, when one perceives that his efforts, no matter how great, will have little if any affect on the results, he soon is no longer motivated to try. This in turn leads to feelings of failure, rejection, depression, and lowered self esteem.

While stress or overload is indeed a factor in burnout and can lead to the problem, stress and burnout are not exactly the same thing. (Farber and Miller, 1981, p. 238). Anderson (1981) reported a study on job satisfaction conducted by the American Academy of Family Physicians which indicated that high stress levels in the form of workload, deadlines, etc. were not indicative of unhappiness. Rather, the leading dissatisfaction factor was lack of appreciation for the workers' efforts. Others echo this thesis by referring to the dehumanizing aspects of the profession as those which lead so quickly to disillusionment and loss of self-respect (Kaiser and Polczynski, 1982, p. 130). Primarily affected are the higher level needs of the teachers, (esteem, self-actualization, security, and autonomy), to the extent that, in a recent survey, teachers indicated that these had decreased for them in the 10 years since they began the profession (Sweeney, 1981, p. 208). And, McPherson (1983) speaks of burnout as a basic loss of dignity and self-respect. By this, he is referring to the loss of control, not in teaching, but in directing the learning process.

Of course, though the exact relationship between high stress levels, coping skills, and loss of self-respect is a

complex one, and, undoubtedly, the combinations of the overload, deadlines, massive paperwork, etc. and apparent lack of appreciation and loss of control are particularly malignant ones. Unfortunately, this may describe many teaching situations in the U.S. today.

Dedrick, Hawkes, and Smith (1981) surveyed teachers from middlesized school districts in the midwest only to find that burnout and dissatisfaction are not unique to larger schools. Indeed, 85% of the teachers surveyed felt that public respect for education and teachers had declined in the last 15 years, 55% had thought seriously about career change, and 67% would not encourage young people to get into teaching. They go on to conclude that professional satisfaction is derived from knowing that efforts with students get results. They point to the many barriers that have been placed in the way of the primary mission of the schools, which is to work with developing students in a personal manner. Obviously, then, holding teachers "accountable" for situations over which they have little or no control may be a sign of the times, and compounds the problem. Indeed, Rottier, Kelley, and Tomhave (1983), in surveying teachers in rural school districts, found that 47% reported that they had more responsibility yet less control than previously, and many, as a result, found teaching to be less enjoyable and felt that they displayed less enthusiasm than when they started.

Regardless of the exact causes of the burnout, the educational process is what ultimately suffers. When teachers are afflicted with this, teacher absenteeism increases, complaints of boredom, exhaustion, illness and many other physical problems are manifest, and, typically, burned out teachers become increasingly regid and inflexible. Also, teachers report that they become quick to anger, negative, cynical, and lose all concern and feeling for those that they work with, and come to treat them in detached or even dehumanized ways (Campbell, 1983, p. 112; Farber and Miller, 1981, p. 237; Greer and Wethered, 1984, p. 526; Horton, 1984, p. 70).

To indicate the extent of the dilemma, several have pointed to teacher surveys conducted by the National Education Association, which have indicated that increasingly large numbers of teachers are leaving the profession alarmingly early in their careers. In 1961, 28% of all teachers had 20 years of experience, whereas, by 1979, merely 12% of the teachers had 20 years or more of experience (Campbell, 1983, p. 111; Farber, 1981, p. 236; Greer and Wethered, 1984, p. 527; Horton, 1984, p. 69). Also, in the 1983 Teacher Opinion Poll conducted by the NEA, almost half of those surveyed indicated job dissatisfaction to the extent that they would not again become teachers if given the option (Greer and Wethered, 1984, p. 527).

There are strikingly large numbers, and, based on the above data, this should be viewed as a disease of the entire educational process. We seem to have created a system whereby, rather than developing and reinforcing teachers who would logically become the cornerstones of the process with their wealth of resources and experience, teachers become deadwood or drop out in large numbers long before this occurs. This, undoubtedly, creates many situations in which the educational integrity of entire schools is being kept afloat by the efforts of the young, enthusiastic teachers. And, if the system is perpetuated, we could predict that even the enthusiasm and desire of these novice educators will also be allayed not too far into their careers. This is an epidemic that should warrant the attention of all professionals and in many ways must be dealt with at the preservice level. It is most disconcerting as a teacher educator to prepare those to go forth and teach, knowing that they will not stay with it!

We must come to recognize massive teacher defection as a human problem; for, after all, teachers are humans with human needs, desires, interests, and shortcomings, and there is much evidence that the vast majority choose teaching for very humanistic reasons. Horton (1984, p. 70) points to the fact that prospective teachers tend to be humanistically oriented individuals who are placed into increasingly politically oriented, bureaucratic school situations which they are not equipped to handle. This leads to role conflict, frustration, anger, and ultimately to burnout. Bureaucracies tend to replace the human oriented goals with their own and to be staffed by well meaning bureaucrats whose sole purpose is to perpetuate the bureaucracy (Kaiser and Polczynski, 1982, p. 128). Undoubtedly this proves to be intolerable to the teachers, who either adapt by becoming increasingly bureaucratic, or who drop out.

Those who maintain high humanistic ideals tend to be hardest hit by the burnout phenomenon. (Farber and Miller, 1981; Scrivens, 1979). Cherniss (1980) points to the fact that those who choose human service as a profession tend to view it as a calling rather than a job. Likewise, they place high priority on personal competence and tend to frustrate easily by lack of results and loss of control (Greer and Wethered, 1984, p. 526). Job satisfaction as expressed by teachers typically is very closely related to pupil progress (Lortie, 1975).

Another facet of the dilemma is that, with programmed instruction, computer assisted instruction, and other innovative approaches, the teacher is viewed by the designers both as incompetent and expendable. The further we remove them from the decision making process, or so the thinking goes, the less the chance of error and the more readily they can be replaced if need be (Horton, 1984, p. 74). The attempt seemingly is to depersonalize and mass produce education.

On the other side of the coin, there is evidence that those individuals who do remain in the teaching profession and do remain effective do so because they are able to or are in a position to cling to their humanistic ideals. In one description of the best teachers by students, "affection and respect for the students" topped the list while "effectiveness in winning compliance and discipline" was near the top (Lortie, 1975). Also, Earls (1981) interviewed distinguished physical education teachers whom he defined as those who had taught for at least five years and who had demonstrated continued self-improvement, effectiveness, and enthusiasm in teaching. He found that they characteristically possessed a "high esteem for students and a high regard for children of all types." Also, they tended to be nonauthoritarian, open to change, and willing to learn both from their students and colleagues.

So, now it seems that we are faced with "the chicken or the egg" paradox. Are these distinguished teachers continuing successfully in the profession because they were humanistically oriented to begin with, or is this some trait that they have learned along the way, while remaining immune to the forces which would modify this? Also, if we begin to return to the original human ideals upon which the mission of our educational system is founded, would we curb the burnout problem?

As in dealing with most problems, perhaps prevention is the ultimate answer. Undoubtedly, there are facets of the system which could stand improvement, but these kinds of institutional changes are notoriously slow and cumbersome. In the meantime, it seems that a more adequate attempt at the preservice level to prepare prospective teachers with necessary realities and "survival skills" is mandatory. (Horton, 1984, p. 71). These would include more classroom management skills, as well as necessary communicative skills in order to not only deal with students, but also school boards, parents, and administrators (O'Brien, 1981). More accurate record keeping skills to detect student progress, which often gets lost in the hustle and bustle of the routine, would also prove to be reinforcing.

Greer and Wethered (1984, p. 527) more poignantly stipulate that a very candid view of the problems of teaching must be presented at the preparatory level.

> "While youthful enthusiasm is a desirable thing and is greatly needed in the schools today, understanding of one's limitations and what can practically be accomplished is critical. Without it, grand visions of rapid change are likely to be shattered, leaving in their wake a young professional who may no longer have the confidence to do the things which are actually within reach."

This theme would coincide with more fully humanizing our teacher preparation programs. We should strive to turn out more well-rounded individuals who are not only eager to teach but who have both feet planted firmly on the ground. Cohen has stated that "one must know who and what one is if he is to be successful in teaching, a most humane profession." This would range from including classes/seminars in self discovery and personal development (Miller and Wiltse, 1979, p. 32), to the screening of prospective teachers for defective personality traits in an attempt to identify those who are most susceptible to burnout (Campbell, 1983, p. 112). Certainly, stress management skills seem warranted which would include the identification of potential sources of stress as well as healthy ways of dealing with them. Bradfield and Fones (1984, p. 502) discuss the merits of the "READ" program which stands for relaxation, exercise, attitude change, and diet in dealing with stress, and, indeed, numerous authors cite the merits of good physical conditioning through regular vigorous exercise as a vital ingredient to allaying stress and becoming a more complete individual. (Farber and Miller, 1981, p. 41; Lemley, 1981, p. 23; Horton, 1984, p. 71; Campbell, 1983, p. 113; Kaiser and Polczynski, 1982, p. 136). The merits of exercise programs, not only for good physical fitness but for the affects in removing communication barriers and improving staff morale is only beginning to be studied, but looks to be extremely promising. Blair and others (1983) report significant results in a large metropolitan school district in terms of teacher absenteeism, morale, reduced medical costs, etc. when a voluntary exercise program was delivered to it. Bradfield and Fones (1984) even went so far as to study the nutritional habits of teachers to relate this to stress coping mechanisms.

Regardless of the approach, though, many of the positive benefits that will be forthcoming from research in the fitness movement of business and industry will undoubtedly spill over into school systems. The question will be whether or not the schools will be willing to put forth the funds that will be necessary. Needless to say, we can predict that most will not. Therefore, it seems incumbent upon the teacher training institutions to assure that this is a part of the total training of prospective teachers.

Summary and Conclusions

The burnout problem is epidemic in the world of education, with increasingly large numbers of teachers dropping out figuratively and literally well before their skills are finely honed. While several authors have related burnout to high teacher stress levels, this is proving to be only part of the problem. A basic loss of respect and dignity and the basic dehumanizing aspect of much of what goes on in today's schools coupled with high stress levels seems to be the real culprit. While some things are being attempted with those already in practice to help alleviate the problem, a real thrust at

prevention should be instituted at the preservice level. This would involve methods of developing basic survival skills for future teachers, dealing with realities of school teaching in the late 21st century, and allowing the prospective teachers opportunities at self discovery and personal development. While we do not want to put a damper on the youthful enthusiasm of the novice instructors, it does need to be tempered with a touch of reality. It is as if we would allow the novice distance runner to burst forth at the beginning of the race, eager to win, only to come to realize early in the contest that he has utilized all of his energy and must either slow down or drop out. The wise approach would be to coach the youngster in pacing and some of the realities of distance racing, so that he may run within himself and finish with a strong kick.

The irony is that it is only as we work with prospective teachers in more humane ways and seek ways to develop them more completely as humans, that they in turn are in better positions to deal with their students in more humane ways in the face of barriers which would prevent this.

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A Case for Aesthetics in Education

By

Bob Taylor

In the 50's to early 70's the development of the whole child anchored the curriculum. Although the whole person concept has lost much momentum, it remains as a premise for this paper with special emphasis on aesthetics and arts as an important part of the curriculum and personal development.

Certain thinkers in education and psychology would have educators reconceive education to include aesthetics. Swanger affirms that the arts offer students a more comprehensive knowledge of the world (Swanger, 1983, p. 25). Broudy wants the arts to have recognition and definition to the extent that they rank with reading, writing and arithmetic as a fourth "r" (Dobbs, 1979, p. 58). Gotshalk and others promote aesthetics as a proper domain in education (Smith, 1971, p. 115-120).

Swanger and Jenkins each discuss types of knowledge and where they see the place of aesthetics. Swanger identifies three types of knowledge: "know how," "know about," and "emphathetic knowledge." "Know how" includes skills such as reading, writing and computation. "Know about" includes history, civics, and science. The person with empathetic knowledge experiences through contact and direct experience. For instance, a child may study poverty and be able to quote statistics about percentages of people below the poverty level; yet not until they empathize--have lived with and known people and neighborhoods in a physical sense can they surpass abstract representations of poverty (Swanger, 1983, p. 25). Jenkins places aesthetics as a third dimension of consciousness along with the cognitive and affective components of experience (Smith, 1971, p. 184).

In 1959, the American Association of School Administrators stated:

> We believe in a well-balanced school curriculum in which music, drama, painting, poetry, sculpture, architecture, and the like are included side by side with other important subjects such as mathematics, history, and science. It is important that pupils, as a part of general education, learn to appreciate, to understand, to create, and to criticize with discrimination those products of mind, the voice, the hand and the body which give dignity to the person and exalt the spirit of man (Schwarz, 1973, p. x).

Educators early on payed lip service to the importance of the arts and John Goodlad lists aesthetic perception and sensitivity as one of a dozen goals for education (Dobbs, 1979, p. 202). When funds for education slacken, the arts programs are the first to be cut. Somehow development of the emotional-imaginative side of the brain carries less weight than cognitive matters of the intellect. To include the arts is to care for a unique aspect of the human dimension in education. "Allusion and metaphor, the drawing of specific expressive accent, allow ordinary people who are not artists to discover new and surprising dimensions of the human reality" (Davis, 1969, p. 96). Supporters of the arts speak of extending experience, expanding consciousness, and self awareness. As Susanne Langer put it; the aim of art is to promote insight into the understanding of the inner realm (Barone, 1983, p. 14). The recent poet Muriel Rukeyser speaks of art as preparing us for thought and after knowing art, "...you are likely to want to go further into the world, further into yourself, toward further experience" (Ruckeyser, 1949, p. 24). The role of art offers the stimulus to imagine, where the student or observer connects with something deeper in the area of personal meaning.

Few object when the arts budget is cut; after all we are only dealing with beauty, appreciation or aesthetics. Rather, what many educators and school boards do not understand is that the world of art and aesthetics deals with images as primarily psychological building blocks. Image links observer or learner with object. Images are the stuff that makes up the psyche and the arts offer a vehicle to the imaging process. Image is psyche, says analyst, James Hillman. "To live psychologically means to imagine things" (Hillman, 1975, p. 23).

> ...restoring the image (means)--not so much in what we see but in the way we see it. It means bringing the imaginal perspective, bringing fantasy to all that we see. Thus everything is transformed into images of significance, and with that change in view we view ourselves differently; we see that we too are ultimately a composition of images, our person the personification of their life in the soul (Hillman, 1975, p. 41).

In case Hillman reads too psychologically perhaps Greene expresses the above thoughts more clearly in educational terms: "A work of art can release a reader into...his own inner world...Under the guidance of the work of art, he will find himself forming some aspect of his consciousness as never before" (Smith, 1971, p. 205).

By nuturing the student in a proper relationship with the arts through strengthening imagination, he/she practices

perceiving, experiences feeling, and participates in valuing--all ancillary to the learning process. The images belong to the learner, and the teacher, through the arts, nourishes the learning process. By helping the individual learner to develop psyche or soul through making image we give the person back to him/herself so that each one comes a bit closer to taking personal responsibility for learning and their own life; then the learner may experience a unique self. Contact with the arts through image and imagining assists in the primary task for education--developing the whole person.

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Logo: A Computer Language For A Humane Learning Environment

By

Karla Telfer

It is a thrilling experience to witness delight and enthusiasm of children as they are introduced to computers in the classroom. It is thrilling because so often in older learners the joy of learning has so long been buried that it seems nothing can resurrect it. To maintain the joy of learning one needs to continue through life to have success experiences. What is it that happens in schools that makes success impossible for so many? Logo is a philosophy and a language dedicated to helping people succeed.

Support for Logo Concepts

Benjamin Bloom in Human Characteristics and School Learning discusses the need for success experiences for optimal learning.

> There is little doubt that under normal school conditions the characteristics of students at the beginning of a series of learning tasks have far more effect on what they will learn than does the quality of instruction they receive (Bloom, 1976, p. 108).
>
> In contrast to initial Cognitive Entry Behaviors--defined as the prerequisite subject content and other prerequisite cognitive skills for the particular learning task--are the initial affective characteristics which include the individual's interests, attitudes, and motivations for the particular learning task. Here, we are convinced that very good quality of instruction may overcome negative initial affective characteristics, so that the student can learn the particular learning tasks to a high level. However, this can be done more easily when the individual has had fewer frustrating and negative experiences with similar or related school learning tasks than when he has had a long history of negative experiences and few rewarding experiences in the school with similar or related tasks (Bloom, 1976, pp. 109-110).

Bloom discusses the import of the teacher and the environment; these are two issues in computer education. At times, the computer becomes the teacher; also, Logo people have great concern for environment. Keep these issues in mind:

> There is at present little support for believing that the characteristics of teachers, classrooms, or schools have much effect on the learning of students. Although more sensitive and sophisticated studies of these characteristics may eventually find more here than has already been identified, we believe that it is the teaching and not the teacher that is central, and it is the environment for learning in the classroom rather than the physical characteristics of the class and classroom that is important for school learning (Bloom, 1976, p. 111).

One other closely related issue that Bloom addresses is active participation. In computer terms that is "hands on experience." The context of the following is a description of an excellent tutor.

> During the learning process, the tutor will have the student actually do the various strands, holds, and swings, and he will provide further cues to correct these to some standard as the learning proceeds. He is getting the student to actively practice or participate in the process. Although it is relatively easy to secure and observe the practice efforts in a skill like serving a tennis ball, such practice or participation is necessary and must be present as a part of any kind of learning process--whether it be a highly abstract and complex cognitive type of problem solving, a less complex cognitive skill, or a more concret psychomotor type of skill learning.
>
> The good tutor recognizes that the amount of participation or the amount of practice of the specific learning elements needed will vary from learner to learner. Some students will acquire it with a minimum of overt practice while others will need much more practice until they get it correct. Some learners can learn the entire operation in a few practice efforts while other learners must practice parts of the operation separately until they get each one to the proper level before they can practice the whole operation.

> We further may note that the tutor makes many little expressions of encouragement... (Bloom, 1976, p. 113).

What is Logo?

Logo as used here is both a computer language and a philosophy of education designed and researched by Seymour Papert and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Logo Group. Logo can be purchased as a software package, loaded into several popular microcomputers, and used in place of the Basic language that usually comes with the machine.

The methods for teaching and learning Logo as designed by Papert significantly differ from other approaches in computer education. Logo is different enough that educators should take a look at what Logo offers schools. The Logo environment is different enough that if introduced into schools it could radically change schooling.

What Does One Learn in Logo?

In order to understand Logo one must understand what Seymour Papert intends students to learn with Logo. Papert opens his book with some background for his concepts. "The Gears of My Childhood" is the title of the foreword.

> ...playing with gears became a favorite pastime. I loved rotating circular objects against one another in gearlike motions and, naturally, my first "erector set" project was a crude gear system.
>
> I became adept at turning wheels in my head and at making chains of cause and effect: "This one turns this way so that must turn that way so..." I found particular pleasure in such systems as the differential gear, which does not follow a simple linear chain of causality since the motion in the transmission shaft can be distributed in many different ways to the two wheels depending on what resistance they encounter. I remember quite vividly my excitement at discovering that a system could be lawful and completely comprehensible without being rigidly deterministic. I believe that working with differentials did more for my mathematical development than anything I was taught in elementary school. Gears, serving as models, carried many otherwise abstract ideas into my head (Papert, 1980, p. vi).

What one learns in Logo is how to think using a concrete object. It is hoped that the concrete learner (Piaget) will find in computers, as Papert found in gears, an identifiable controlable object to move, to direct, to observe. The formal operational learner will be able to continue to use this same familiar object for learning more abstract concepts. The phrase that has caught on in Logo circles is "an object to think with."

One also learns that persons control machines; machines do not control persons. This concept is taught very early when the new user acquires the power of naming. Directions that the computer responds to are defined by the user almost immediately. For example, the computer does not at first respond to *"flower"* but once the user decides what his *"flower"* will be, every time after that when he indicates *"flower"* the computer will respond by producing the user's flower.

Another concept learned in Logo is that rarely is a project perfect the first time around and that is fine. Generally, debugging is needed; fixing is considered an appropriate, necessary part of learning.

Uniqueness of Logo

It is about time to introduce the turtle for this is truly the focal point of Logo. If one were facing a computer screen and if the computer were loaded with Logo a turtle would appear at the center of the screen called HOME. It is at home where the turtle's activities begin. Home is a centering place.

It's important to know what the turtle can do. Most important the turtle can draw lines with his pen. If told to move FORWARD 50 turtle steps, the object on the screen would move toward the top of the screen. Turtle also "knows" how to go back, right, and left as far as directed to go.

Logo is different from other computer languages because one can immediately take control of the computer and create graphics with common English words.

A most significant difference between Logo and other languages such as Cobol, Fortran, and PLI is that in Logo the learner is important while in other languages the product is of primary importance. Computers in the business world have the capacity to deal with mind-boggling quantities of data, to store, categorize, sort, rank, and alphabetize as well as perform mathematical functions with the data. General Motors and J.C. Penney require that the results be correct. They are concerned about the product of the computer. In education and in Logo, by contrast, what is of greatest importance is the learner and the learning process. Therefore different languages are appropriately used for different purposes.

The Logo Environment

It is pointless to continue about what one learns without discussing the need for the Logo environment. Essential to the process of learning Logo as it was meant to be learned, is learning in an accepting environment. The elements of the Logo environment are encouraged, cooperation in problem-solving, time "to mess around", and free access to computers. Papert addresses self-concept, a major concern of the Logo environment.

> The extent to which adults in our society have lost the child's positive stance toward learning varies from individual to individual. An unknown but certainly significant proportion of the population has almost completely given up on learning. These people seldom, if ever, engage in deliberate learning and see themselves as neither competent at it nor likely to enjoy it. The social and personal cost is enormous... In a learning environment with the proper emotional and intellectual support, the "uncoordinated" can learn circus arts like juggling and those with "no head for figures" learn not only that they can do mathematics but that they can enjoy it as well.
>
> Although these negative self-images can be overcome, in the life of an individual they are extremely robust and powerfully self-reinforcing. If people believe firmly enough that they cannot do math, they will usually succeed in preventing themselves from doing whatever they recognize as math. The consequences of such self-sabotage is personal failure, and each failure reinforces the original belief. And such beliefs may be most insidious when held not only by individuals, but by our entire culture (Papert, 1980, p. 42).

The Logo environment is necessary not only in the classroom but as a support system for teachers of Logo and Logo users. Dan and Molly Watt demonstrate how such an environment can be created. They established the Manadnock group in their hometown to share ideas about Logo and to learn from others (Watt, 1984, pp. 25-29).

Computers in Society

Sherry Turkle, sociologist and wife of Seymour Papert, addresses computers in today's society.

> ...of the computer we ask more. We ask not just about where we stand in nature, but about where we

> stand in the world of artifact. We search for a link between who we are and what we have made, between who we are and what we might create, between who we are and what, through our intimacy with our own creations, we might become (Turkel, 1984, p. 12).

More from Turkel:

> As I have worked on this book I have often been asked, "Are computers good or bad?" The question was usually asked in regard to children, but as home computers moved aggressively into the marketplace, I was increasingly asked to answer this question in regard to adults. The question deserves some comment. No one asks whether relationships with people are good or bad in general. Rather, we seek out the information to build our own model of a particular relationship. Only then do we make judgments about the possible effects of the relationship. We have long experience with this kind of model building of relationships between people, but we are only beginning to think in this more textured way about our relationships with technology.
>
> Computers are not good or bad: they are powerful. I report, this is only to the good if it leads to a critical reexamination of what each of us takes for granted about "The Computer" and to an attitude of healthy skepticism toward any who propose simple scenarios about the "impact of the computer on society." (Turkel, 1984, pp. 322-323).

The potential exists for creating humane learning environments with computers. However, it is the contention of this paper that Logo promotes such an environment while other languages do not address it. Of greatest importance in schools is the welfare of persons in the environment--more important than a thousand computers!

Education Issues in Logo

What are the issues in Logo today? From my perceptions gained in part by attending Logo '84 at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, some significant education-related issues for Logo users are as follows:

1. Equal access to computers. Papert made a plea for equal access for all people. Since computers are expensive the gap between the have's and the have-nots is widening.

2. School use. Which languages will be taught in the schools? At present it is Basic rather than Logo that is most widely taught. Pascal is also in the curriculum of many schools. Even if Logo is included in school programs will it be taught within a Logo environment?

3. Smartness of computers. If computers are built to respond to touch and voice will the teaching value of computers be diminished?

4. Grading. In a truly accepting environment, the Logo environment, who has the right to put a negative value on someone else's work?

5. Cooperative learning. Schools in the U.S. are generally organized for student competition with grades distributed on a curve. Sharing answers is considered dishonest. The Logo environment calls for sharing and working together on problems. Secondary and higher education teachers frequently have difficulty with this concept.

Beane and Lipka address cooperative learning in their recent publication, Self-Concept, Self-Esteem and the Curriculum.

> ...the competitive reward structures ought to be replaced with cooperative procedures whereby students are rewarded for working together. Specifically, learners ought to be asked to work together on school activities, helping and teaching one another, and to aim toward projects that are the result of cooperation. One particular case of this method...is team learning, in which students work in cooperative settings throughout the school day and year...(Beane, 1984, p. 134).

Computers Softly

An example of a soft approach to computers is Thornburg's tutorial that begins each chapter with an inspirational or witty or amusing statement. The author uses words, real words, to link aesthetics and computers. Chapter 2 begins as follows:

> "When we were little...we went to school in the sea. The master was an old Turtle--we used to call him Tortoise." "Why did you call him Tortoise if he wasn't one" Alice asked. "We called him Tortoise because he taught us," said the Mock Turtle angrily. "Really, you are very dense." Alice's Adventures in Wonderland (Thornburg, 1983, p. 9).

That brings us back to the turtle, the anthropomorphic figure of Logo, the friendly little teacher or learner. And so to close:

> The flowers appear on the earth; the time of the singing of the birds is come, and the voice of the turtle is heard in our land...The Song of Solomon 2:12 (Thornburg, 1983, p. v).

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VENI, VIDI . . .EDUCATION 2084
A SCENARIO

by

Dorothy Trusock

The day rose crisp and cool, a typical autumn morning. Epimeth and Daphne were ejected from their beds by the automated alarm system. After dressing in their identical uniforms of silver slacks and white shirts, they walked to the kitchen, drank their moon juice and left for the Prairieville Learning Center. For you see, there are no more institutions such as schools or colleges, only learning centers in each community.

The Learning Center is the core of the Prairieville community. It consists of three domed buildings: an Arts Building where the learners go for art and music; a Physical Building where the recipients go for exercise and health information, and a Brain Center where all other subjects are explored. The Centers have no books, only a maze of sophisticated computer equipment. Daphne and Epimeth enter the Brain Center because, today, they are going to study Shakespeare. Approaching the computer terminal, Epimeth dials the Stratford-on-the-Avon theater where Macbeth is being performed. They watch the performance. After each act, they retrieve the master teacher who presents a series of critical questions. They type in their responses. The master teacher analyzes the responses and the drama continues; the pattern continues. When this performance is over, Daphne dials the performance of Macbeth at the University of Paris. The pattern continues. Epimeth and Daphne are not fluent in French, but the computer translates as the performance progresses. They watch it next in Greek. And the day continues. Tiring of a variety of performances, they listen to an oral presentation of G. B. Harrison's commentary on Macbeth. And the day goes on.

At the master control center, the English Literature expert, Dionysius Sheridan, senses their ennui. Through his microphone, he asks, "Would you like to discuss anything with me?" The interception of a human voice jolts the learners, but it is a warm and welcome distraction. Four hours of metal and disembodied voices has dulled their senses. Mr. Sheridan invites them into the control center. There, they discuss the merits and demerits of the Burton performances. Was Richard's or Oliver Laurence's interpretation of the text more original, more meaningful? Epimeth's and Daphne's critical skills are sharpened. When the session concludes, they join Mr. Sheridan for some herb tea. The beverage is refreshing and stimulating. It is made from an ancient herb

known as marijuana; its properties relax the body and soul after an intellectually stimulating day.

Epimeth and Daphne leave the Brain Center and go in separate directions. Daphne goes to the Arts Building where she will join Michael Glinsky in a sculpting session. She is working on a sculpture of Zaus, the spiritual leader of Prairieville. Epimeth goes to the physical building where he joins his friends in a game of flog. Flog is played on a concrete floor with holes placed 37 feet apart; the ball is made of silk with a magnet inside. The players have sticks with north and south magnetic poles. The object of the game is to attract the ball to the holes. The first team to capture 16 of the 18 holes wins the game. The day has been invigorating and ennervating. Daphne and Epimeth return home.

Their evening is liesurely spent. After a pleasant dinner of organic vegetables and whice burgers (whice is a hybrid grain made from wheat and rice), they watch television, particularly enjoying a review of an old film, "Indiana Jones and the Temple of Doom." When this is over they turn their channel to a station from France and listen to an hour of the Paris Symphony orchestra. As the orchestra performs, Daphne and Epimeth join their parents for a game of Twentieth Century Frivolous Facts. This is a favorite of the family because it sharpens their historical knowledge and provides them with a humorous perspective of the ancients. They howl with laughter at such questions as How many golf balls were left on the moon? and What nightly news coanchorman was thrown out of the Democratic Convention in 1968? Daphne and Epimeth have made many trips to the moon and have never seen these "things" called golf balls; they have only seen them in historical museums outside of Prairieville.

The next day, Epimeth and Daphne return to the Learning Center. Today is history day as they sit before the computers to watch old news reels and read the copy projected on the screen. They are fascinated by life in the Twentieth Century; life was so primitive and learning so tedious. Imagine reading books one line at a time when they can read several pages at a time or have their brain machine give them a summary in seconds. Epimeth and Daphne have only seen books in the Library of Congress Museum of Ancient Artifacts.

From history, they turn to science. As they enter the Science Studio, Epimeth goes to the brain machine he has been working with and Daphne goes to hers. Epimeth is working on an experiment to turn sand into water. Water is a precious element because so much is needed; today's vehicles use water. Water is the source for heating and cooling their buildings. Water is the main energy source and an unlimited supply is needed. Daphne, on the other hand, is working on her own project to turn rocks into diamonds. Funny thing, but diamonds are still a girl's best friend. Some things never change.

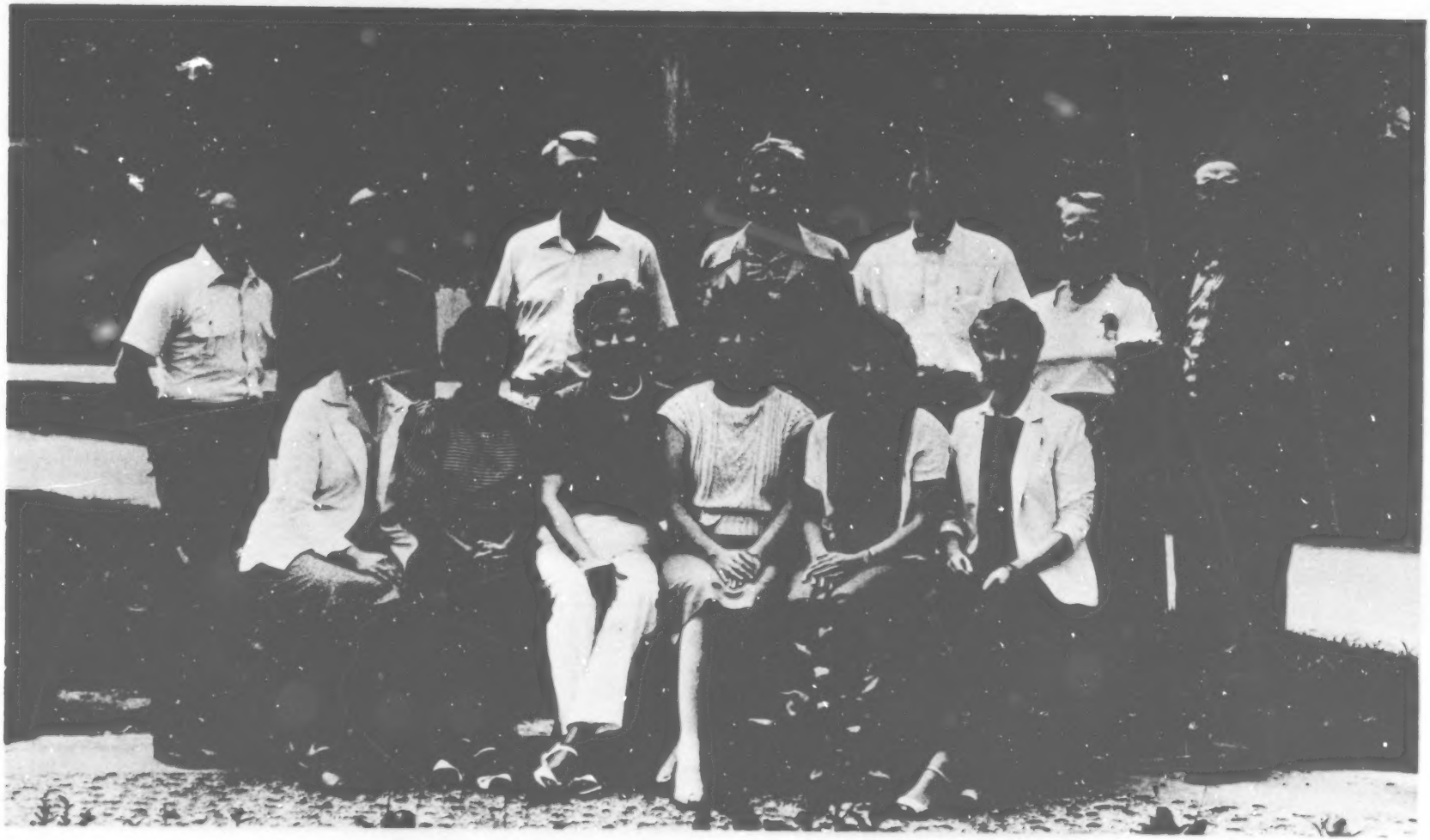
Epimeth is working diligently, consulting his brain center as he proceeds to split the grains of sand to determine their chemical elements. He works with a variety of chemical properties, mixing them with the split grains to determine the results. Each plate, containing the grains and chemicals, is placed in the nuclear powered blender. After several plates are placed in the machine, Epimeth is ready to turn it on and wait twenty-four hours for the results. Epimeth smiles. Being able to make a significant contribution to science is important to him. It will give him special status in society; it will be his ticket to fame, fortune and favor.

Epimeth rose from his chair, gave the machine a warm, affectionate pat and raised his hand to push the button to activate the blender. He slowly reached over and pushed the black button. The machine groaned. He pushed the button again. The machine moaned. A third push began a vibration. At this sign of life, Epimeth took Daphne by the hand and exited the room. They were in the tunnel leading to the outside when they heard the explosion. They crouched in a crevice of the cement tunnel, watching the world disintegrate around them. Daphne fainted; Epimeth sneezed and coughed from the fumes and dust. When the rumblimg subsided, Epimeth looked out from their haven; his world was in ruins around him.

For days, Epimeth and Daphne huddled in the crevice, fearing to face the results of his error. When they emerged, the shock hit them. Prairieville was extinct. Epimeth and Daphne started to walk. They walked and walked, subsisting on whatever roots they could find which were untouched and edible. Days passed into weeks when they spotted a small village in a valley. The hand-scrawled sign read, "Welcome to Nede." They approached the first building, a small white-washed frame structure with a huge bell on top. They peaked through the open door observing nine children sitting at wood tables with an adult at a large wood table in front of the room. She smiled and motioned for them to enter. They moved forward and sat down. She handed them a book; they were baffled. Why these ancient artifacts? The teacher said, "Now we will all read together." And they began:

> And I saw a new heaven and
> a new earth. For the first
> heaven and the first earth
> passed away, and the sea is
> no more.
>
> Apocalypse, 21:1

Epimeth and Daphne wept. Were they tears of sorrow or of joy?



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